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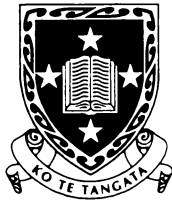
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Towards a Functional Definition of German Studies: New Zealand and the International Context

Kristina Lois McGuinness-King



**The
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of Waikato**
*Te Whare Wānanga
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Towards a Functional Definition of German Studies: New Zealand and the International Context

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
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by**

Kristina Lois McGuinness-King

**Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand
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Abstract.

Particularly during the past two decades education systems have been confronted by globalisation and internationalisation, resulting diversification and integration of foreign and trading relations, increasingly multicultural societies, rapidly advancing economic and technological developments and the dominance of the English language internationally as the language of international trade, and political and cultural communication. These changes have led to a process of ongoing restructuring in education internationally.

The determination of academic programmes according to the principle of consumer demand, and the vocational focus associated with the 'marketisation' of the education system have led many to question the 'usefulness' of foreign languages, particularly the European languages, especially in view of the fact that historically foreign languages disciplines have been largely literature-based. During the past two decades, however, the question of 'general or cultural education' versus career-oriented education has become more pointed. Foreign languages disciplines, including German Studies, have been forced to adapt the programmes offered to reflect the diversification of career options and the trend towards the study of vocational or professional subjects.

This thesis explores the diverse, interrelated and changing regional and international parameters that have impacted on the situation of foreign languages in the Asia-Pacific. In order to provide international reference points for recommendations for the future development of German Studies in New Zealand, I investigate the framework, context and national parameters (historical, political, economic, educational and social) that have impacted on the context and concept of German Studies in selected Asian-Pacific countries: China, Japan, Korea, Australia and New Zealand. This evaluation ascertains what innovations have occurred within the discipline in these countries in response to the changing parameters.

The discipline of German Studies in the Asia-Pacific has responded to these challenges in various ways. These include the incorporation of the German departments into larger administrative and curricular units, the diversification of the 'German' courses and programmes offered to include practical applications of German and contemporary German and European issues, the development of vocationally-oriented programmes and of interdisciplinary and integrated programmes, such as European Studies, the introduction of *DaF* or *Interkulturelle Germanistik* programmes and the development of cooperative ventures and programmes with German companies, organisations and institutions.

It is evident from the responses of the discipline that irrespective of national differences the pressures of globalisation and internationalisation exerted on the discipline in these five countries are very similar. The discipline of German Studies in New Zealand cannot isolate itself from the developments occurring internationally and the necessity to respond. The discipline must take cognisance of these developments and respond to the pressures it is faced with by clearly defining its function and role within the environment of interrelated political, economic and educational parameters that it operates in. It does not suffice to point to the cultural value of individual languages. In other words, while the discipline of German Studies in New Zealand, consistent with international trends, should retain a strong cultural component, it cannot define its role solely on an understanding of its cultural importance, but must respond to the challenge to become relevant to demands of the employment market.

In order to maximise the effectiveness, attractiveness and potential of the discipline in New Zealand, it is desirable that the discipline develops two clear foci, which would do justice to both its cultural/literary mission and its functional role in the labour market. One would continue to focus on Germanistik proper, that is, the study of language and literature, while the other would specialise in the applied dimensions of German Studies, including specifically targeted language courses and integrated programmes in Intercultural Studies and European Studies. This model reflects the recent changes in the political, economic and linguistic environment as well as those in education both nationally and internationally. Such a functional approach, with increased emphasis on the recognition of the vocational potential of the discipline, would ensure the productive development of the discipline and greatly enhance the value of the subject from a national perspective.

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I dedicate this thesis to my beloved grandmother, Doris Brenda King, who unfortunately died during the time I have been working on this research. She always called me “the throwback to our German ancestry” and encouraged my obsession with the German language, culture and people in every possible way.

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Part I. Introduction.

Part I. Introduction.

Rousseau hat glaube ich gesagt: ein Kind, das bloß seine Eltern kennt, kennt auch die nicht recht. Dieser Gedanke läßt sich [auf] viele andere Kenntniße, ja auf alle anwenden, die nicht ganz *reiner* Natur sind: Wer nichts als Chemie versteht versteht auch die nicht recht.

(Lichtenberg 1963: 191)

I.1 Germanistik and German Studies in a Changing Context: Regional and International Parameters.

I.1.1 Changes internationally during the past two decades which have impacted on the situation of foreign languages.

During the past two decades the overriding trends internationally have been those of globalisation and internationalisation. Key characteristics of these are global networking, cultural dialogue and flexibility. These trends have changed the face of the world dramatically (Sachs 1997; Walsh 1997).

Political and economic changes have impacted in a major way on the process of globalisation and internationalisation. These changes include the formation of trading blocs such as the European Union (EU), the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA); the collapse of the communist regimes in the former Eastern bloc countries and the subsequent democratisation and liberalisation of many of these countries; the re-orientation of the countries included in this study (amongst others) towards the Asia-Pacific region; the liberalisation of China's economic relations and markets to a degree and the rapid industrial and technological development of Japan and Korea.¹

Market-oriented reforms as part of the internationalisation process have changed trading relations (Rodrik 1997). Most parts of the world are now (inter)linked by open trade, convertible currencies, foreign investment flows and a commitment by governments to private ownership as the stimulus of economic growth. Even in China, which is still governed by a Socialist system, less than twenty percent of the labour force work in state-owned enterprises (Sachs 1997: 39). The employment market internationally is characterised by global networking and information sharing, career and spacial mobility, life-long learning, upskilling, adaptation and flexibility (Straubherr 1998: 22-23). Combined with these developments has been an explosion of communications technology internationally (Dutta 2000).

¹ Cf. Bräsel 1997, 1998; Sachs 1997; Walsh 1997; Horst 1998; Mersmann 1999.

Since 1945 there has been marked expansion and diversification in education systems worldwide. Particularly during the past two decades education systems have been confronted by the challenges of globalisation, increasingly multicultural societies and rapidly advancing economic and technological developments (Lenhardt 1997; Straubherr 1998: 22-23; Lämmert 1999). These changes have led to a process of ongoing restructuring in education internationally as industrial societies become information societies. The process of restructuring has resulted in reforms based on the principles of user-pays (with the introduction of tuition fees), rationalisation, efficiency, competition, accountability and orientation towards consumer demand, for instance. These reforms could be described as the marketisation of education (Schayan 1997; Straubherr 1998: 22). Associated with this has been a trend towards vocational or market-oriented programmes and disciplines in order to prepare graduates for the dynamic demands of the employment market, a trend that has in effect led to a lesser emphasis on the Humanities components of the languages disciplines.

In response to ever more internationalisation of trade and political relations, education has had to become more internationalised. Universities, for example, in many countries have introduced innovative programmes, such as bilingual instruction in German and English in German universities,² obtained private investment and promoted international links, exchanges and partnerships (Schayan 1997). There has also been increased use of information technology in education.³ The internationalisation of education is and must be an ongoing process. According to Straubherr (1998: 22-24), education systems need to be able to adapt rapidly to the economic and social structural changes that are part of today's globalised world (and he suggests more privatisation of education systems as one way of achieving this). He contends that education systems should emphasise the development of personal qualities, such as creativity, innovation, the ability to communicate in a variety of situations and to critique, teamwork and networking skills and the ability to solve problems and conflicts.⁴

As telecommunications, trade and tourism have advanced internationally English has become the international *lingua franca*, the international language of communication in practically all domains, while many other languages have been marginalised to a degree.⁵ Of the estimated 6500 languages currently spoken, approximately half are already endangered or near extinction, according to Geary (1997: 46-47). The top ten languages in the world in terms of first language speakers (in millions) are (Geary 1997: 48):

² Cf. Ammon 1998.

³ Cf. Estabrook 1991; Gellert 1996; Schönert 1998; Choi 1999; Fluck 1999; Tabata 1999; Schlobinski 2000; Bayer 2000; Reuen & Schmitz 2000.

⁴ Cf. Bräsel 1998: 116; Mersmann 1999; Timmermann 1999: 482-484.

⁵ Cf. Brosnahan 1963; Picht 1985; Lo Bianco 1988; Ammon 1996a, 1996b; Ehlich 2000.

Mandarin Chinese	726
English	427
Spanish	266
Hindi	182
Arabic	181
Portuguese	165
Bengali	162
Russian	158
Japanese	124
German	121

It must be noted that the total number of native speakers of a language bears little relationship to the usage of that language in international communication. English has become entrenched as the language of choice for academia, business, science and popular culture and is, according to Clyne (1999: 121), the:

unbestritten interkontinentale internationale Sprache, die Hauptsprache des Welthandels, der EDV, das Identitätssymbol der Jugendlichen.

Circa 80 percent of electronic mail worldwide is written in English and in 1998 56 percent of internet use was in English. Part of the reason for the increasing dominance of English has been its wide usage as the language of the British colonial and trading empire during the 19th century and more recently its association with the military, economic and cultural power of the United States (US) during the 20th century (Stanley *et al.* 1990: 46-48; Geary 1997: 51; Stark 1998).

Given the dominance of English, the significance of German internationally as a language of trade, political relations and academia has declined.⁶ According to Ammon (1991: 32-51), German was the sixth language (in terms of numbers of speakers) internationally in 1964 after Chinese, English, Hindi Urdu, Spanish and Russian. By 1990, however, German had slipped to eleventh place after Chinese, English, Hindi, Spanish, Arabic, Bengali, Portuguese, Indonesian, Japanese and Russian. Ammon (1994: 44) describes the status of German as having changed from an international language of Science to a regional language of business communication between Eastern and Western Europe in particular.

Until the 1930s German was regarded as the world's most important scientific language, but since then English has increased in significance dramatically. German was also the traditional language of international communication in Eastern Europe until World War II (WWII), but was replaced by Russian in the school curriculum after 1945. Ehlich (2000) describes the general decline of German as an academic language, a trend that is heightened by the increasing use of English as a medium of instruction and research in universities in the German-speaking countries, particularly in the Science and Medicine disciplines.⁷ English is now the dominant language in Science and Technology publications,

⁶ Cf. Brändle 1988a; Ammon 1991e, 1993, 1995, 1996b; Götze 1991; Leitner 1991; Glück 1992; Fernandez *et al.* 1994: 101-108; Rösler 1994: 42-44.

⁷ Cf. Ehlich 1993; Ammon 1998.

although German remains the third most often utilised language behind English and French in many Humanities and Social Science publications and is the preferred language of many scholars in the former Eastern bloc countries (Fernandez *et al.* 1994: 106-107).

While English is clearly the most important language internationally, German remains important and pluricentric language, particularly in Europe. Two factors that have increased the demand for and the significance of German within Europe during the past decade are the internal political changes that have occurred in the Eastern European countries and the subsequent moves towards increased relations with Western Europe and the European integration process (Wittmann 1990: 369; Leitner 1991; Stark 1998).⁸ German has (again) become one of the most important European regional languages and an important instrument of trading and political relations between European Union (EU) and those of the former Eastern European bloc, where the language plays a kind of bridging role (Burkert 1997: 33; Kelz 1990: 366-367; Ammon 1994d: 44; Clyne 1999). After the political changes in the former Eastern bloc countries, Russian was removed from the curriculum as the second compulsory foreign language in most of these countries and often replaced by German. This has led to increased opportunities for the language and increased significance or status in these areas. However, English is still the first foreign language in Eastern European countries with circa 21.2 million students in 1994 as compared with circa 11.4 million learning German (Davidheiser 1997: 68-69).

In terms of economic strength internationally (as defined in billions of dollars of trade) German is third after English and Japanese (Ammon 1991a: 47-51). According to the criteria used in Ammon's 1991 study (numerical, political and symbolic, economic, academic and cultural strength), German belongs to the ten, and in many instances to the five, top languages in the world. However, English was and is considerably above German in all respects (Ammon 1991a: 567).⁹ For an extensive study of the change in the status of the German language internationally refer to Ammon's 1991 study, *Die internationale Stellung der deutschen Sprache*.¹⁰

According to Ammon (1994d: 45), a language can only be defined as an international language:

if it is used in contacts between citizens of different countries who are also speakers of different mother tongues. Its use can therefore either occur asymmetrically between native speakers of that particular language and native speakers of another language, or as a kind of lingua franca used for communication between speakers who have completely different mother tongues.

⁸ Cf. Ammon 1991c, 1996a; Morgan 1991; Booth-Whiting 1993: 232-240; Földes 1995; Horst 1998: 664, 667-668; Clyne 1999.

⁹ Cf. Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 41-42; Wabenhorst 1997; Stark 1998.

¹⁰ Other publications on the changing status of German internationally and the pluricentric nature of the language and culture include Maaß 1979; Nelde 1981; Clyne 1984, 1995, 1999; Ammon 1990; Mohr & Schneider 1994; Glück 1992, 1998a; Stark 1998.

In terms of this definition English has without any doubt become the international language par excellence, a process that appears irreversible. Foreign languages disciplines, including German, therefore, must adapt to this reality and clearly define their function if they are to survive.

1.1.2 The relationship between *Auslandsgermanistik*, *Binnengermanistik* and German Studies.

Auslandsgermanistik has never been identical with *Binnengermanistik*¹¹ because of the different parameters the discipline operates within in different countries (and because of the pluricentric nature of the discipline itself). These parameters include the geographical and historical situation, a country's relationship with the German-speaking countries and institutional factors such as the regulatory framework of degrees awarded at the tertiary level.¹² For those learning German in non German-speaking countries, the target country is foreign, and the forms of contact with the target language are limited to the available publications, the classroom, contact with German-speaking tourists, for instance. In some countries these opportunities are more limited than in others. Students of German abroad, therefore, have to learn the language and aspects of the social and cultural history as background to the literary studies as compared with German-speaking students of Germanistik who grow up with this background. This has implications for the teaching and concept of German abroad: the term 'German Studies', therefore, is intended to reflect this complexity of the subject.¹³

In spite of this situation, the *Auslandsgermanistik* largely understood itself to be the guardian of the 'traditional' concept of Germanistik as taught in the German-speaking countries. This was reflected in the emphasis on language and particularly on literary studies (Wierlacher 1980c: 14-15; Veit 1985: 314-315; Batts 1991: 177).¹⁴ As long as the German-speaking countries and the German language and culture were regarded as a cultural, political and economic 'Vorbild' or 'Leitkultur', for instance in Japan, the 'traditional' concept of Germanistik could understandably operate quite well in that country. However, as soon as this 'Leitbild' function of the German language and culture was called into question or replaced by another cultural and political example, such as the US, or by changing economic needs, the subject came under pressure both in terms of what was taught and in terms of student enrolments.

¹¹ *Binnengermanistik* is defined by Wierlacher (1987b: 13) as being the so-called "Dreieckmodell" (triangular model) of literary studies, linguistics studies and medieval studies (Deichsel 1989; Ickler 1994b: 297; Dürscheid *et al.* 1994; Helbig 1998; Hernig 2000: 13-14). For details on the history of *Binnengermanistik* see authors such as Lämmert, Killy, Conrady & Polenz 1967; Berghahn & Pinkerneil 1980; Rosenberg 1981, 1989; Janota 1981, 1993; Barner & Neumann 1985; Mehrtens 1988; Brackert & Stuckrath 1992; Hermand 1994; Fohrmann & Voßkamp 1997; Arntzen 1996 and Boden and Dainat 1997.

¹² Cf. Thomson 1985; Veit 1985: 316-326, 1991; Neuner 1986, 1994; Deichsel 1989: 153-154; Nayhauss 1989; Raasch 1997; Földes 1998: 56; Horst 1998: 663; Timmermann 1999: 481.

¹³ Cf. Rösler 1994: 7; Horst 1998: 669; Hernig 2000: 37-38, 89-107.

¹⁴ For the purposes of this study, the term 'German literature' is used to refer to German language literature, not simply that originating from Germany.

The *Auslandsgermanistik* has, therefore, been forced to change and adapt during the past three decades as the political, economic and institutional parameters have changed.¹⁵ Veit (1992: 130) rightly points to the importance of the 'consumer' perspective:

The situation of an 'Auslandsgermanistik' (German studies outside Germany) obediently following the theoretical precepts of the dominant German paradigm which focus on the object per se is no longer tenable. In other words, [...] the study of a foreign culture is not necessarily, and certainly not in the first instance, guided by the interests of that culture but rather by the interests of the observer."

In his opening speech as President of the International Association of Germanic Language and Literary Academics (IVG) at the 1985 congress, Albrecht Schöne (1986b: 11) defined the Germanistik discipline as being different from the Science disciplines (which are essentially international in nature) in that it cannot and should not be applied in different countries in exactly the same manner. He stressed that the theoretical premises, methodological principals and the academic rules and procedures (to which the discipline has agreed in principle) are modified to a much greater degree by the diverse requirements, experiences and interests than one would like to admit. Even the choice of research topics and comparative material, the academic formulation of questions and criteria, the definition of the canon and processes of reception are largely determined by the initial abilities and fundamental attitudes of students in each country, the diverging needs and tasks, the different mother-tongue, historical and cultural limitations and the political and social conditions of the country in question. Schöne (1986b: 9) concludes that the productive value of foreign language study consists of the interaction between two different cultures:

Damit wir aber viel voneinander lernen können im 'Wechseltausch', müßten wir die produktiven Kräfte eines solchen Perspektivenreichtums beleben, statt uns etwa durch untaugliche Uniformierungsversuche ärmer zu machen, als wir sind.

The nature of German Studies, and of language studies in general, clearly depends on a number of specific factors: the national languages policy (or the lack of one) determines the extent to which languages are taught; the place of languages in the curriculum largely determines their nature at the tertiary level; the political and economic orientation or re-orientation have a substantial bearing on the development and popularity of languages.¹⁶ These are clearly factors that have to be taken into consideration when developing recommendations on language policy and language development. It does not suffice to point to the cultural value of individual languages. The answers have to be found in clearly defining the function of the foreign language disciplines.¹⁷

¹⁵ Cf. Monteiro 1989; Wazel 1990; Völzing 1993, 1995; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 590; Bräsel 1997: 100; Timmermann 1999: 481-484; Mersmann 1999; Veit 1999.

¹⁶ Cf. Waite 1992; Hernig 2000: 88-108, 174-175.

¹⁷ For further details of the factors impacting on the parameters of the discipline of *Auslandsgermanistik* see also Sturm 1987; Brinkmann 1978; Ehlers & Karchers 1987; Oellers 1988; Förster *et al.* 1989; Picht 1990; Althof 1990; Brackert & Stückrath 1992; Mishima & Tsuji 1992; Nayhauss *et al.* 1993; Ehlich 1994; Stephens 1995; Kleinschmidt 1996; Batts 1996; Veit 1999; Lämmert 1999; Wierlacher 1999; Kuri 2001 and the *Jahrbuch DaF*, *Info DaF* and other related journals.

I.1.3 Changes in Binnengermanistik during recent decades.

This awareness of the changing parameters the discipline operates within also had an impact on the definition of Germanistik within the German-speaking countries. Changes within the discipline that have occurred during the past two decades in German-speaking countries are a shift from the 'traditional' cultural concept of the subject to a more flexible and inclusive understanding of the pluricentric discipline (Müller 1993; Kleinschmidt 1996; Wierlacher 1987b: 13, 1999; Lämmert 1999).¹⁸ This shift manifests itself in increasing discussion of the role and concept of Germanistik at conferences and in publications, including the *Jahrbuch für Internationale Germanistik*, and in the establishment of cooperative research projects and new academic associations, such as the *Deutsche Germanistenverband* (Thum 1993).¹⁹ Many academics and authors such as Albrecht Schöne, Alois Wierlacher, Hikaru Tsuji, Gerhard Neuner, Walter Veit, Bernd Thum and Michael Batts have pointed to the need to adapt the discipline to the local political, economic and social context, that is, to the need for a change of paradigm.

One response to the changing situation was the establishment of *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (DaF) as a teaching and research discipline. This was established in the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) in the late 1970s in response to the needs of a large influx of immigrants from a diverse range of countries.²⁰ The Universities of Munich, Karlsruhe and Heidelberg were early centres of DaF with academics such as Harald Weinrich, Dietrich Krusche, Bernd Thum and Alois Wierlacher, the major figures behind these developments. Henrici (1998: 81) defines DaF as a multidisciplinary subject that reflects the changing parameters for the discipline (both in German-speaking countries and elsewhere) and is dependant in many ways on international relations and serves the promotion of international understanding.²¹

According to Henrici and Koreik (1994b: 16-20), there are four significant components within the subject of DaF. Each programme tends to emphasise one or more of the following aspects: linguistics, literature, *Landeskunde* (LK) (cultural studies) and language teaching and learning didactics, methodologies and research.²² Appendix Two contains a depiction of the structure, aims and objectives of DaF as a subject.

Ehlich (1994: 22) comments on the development and the diversity of DaF saying that the discipline.²³

¹⁸ Cf. Förster et al. 1989: 1-14; Wazel 1990; Ziolkowski 1990; Brackert & Stückerath 1996; Altmayer 1997; Mersmann 1999; Hernig 2000: 107-108.

¹⁹ Cf. Brinkmann 1978.

²⁰ In the German Democratic Republic (GDR) DaF was already part of the discipline and the *Herder Institut* in association with the University of Leipzig employed researchers and teachers such as Gerhard Helbig (Kretzenbacher 1998: 4).

²¹ Cf. Wierlacher 1975, 1980a, 1980b; Veit 1987; Brändle 1988a; Glück 1991; Ehlich 1994; Hernig 2000: 29-33.

²² Cf. Weinrich 1979; Wazel 1990: 374; Ickler 1994a, 1994b: 297-298; Rösler 1994: 141-144; Henrici 1996; Königs 1996; Götze & Suchsland 1996; Földes 1998; Helbig 1998: 64; Glück 1998b; Kim 1999; Slivensky 1999.

²³ Cf. Wierlacher 1987b: 13; Rösler 1994: 141-144.

hat es verstanden, in der kurzen Zeit ihres Bestehens ein äußerst vielfaltiges Bild zu entwickeln, eine breite Forschungsaktivität zu entfalten, das Interesse unterschiedlicher wissenschaftlicher Nachbardisziplinen produktiv zu integrieren und in einem kritischen, komplexen, wirklich akademischen Arbeitszusammenhang durch ihre eigene Entfaltung zur Öffnung eines traditionell relativ abgeschlossenen Fachgebietes, der Germanistik, für neue Fragestellungen und für neue Praxisfelder beizutragen.

There are currently a number of academic journals containing articles on aspects of *DaF* research and teaching, including *Deutsch als Fremdsprache*, *Information Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (*Info DaF*) and *Jahrbuch Deutsch als Fremdsprache*, academic associations and organisations, such as *Fachverband Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (*FaDaF*), and a diverse range of *DaF* programmes offered at universities in German-speaking countries (and abroad) (Henrici and Koreik 1994b: 21-34; Rösler 1994: 141-144).²⁴

The demand for further change led to the development of *Interkulturelle Germanistik* (Intercultural German Studies) in the early 1980s and the establishment of the *Gesellschaft für Interkulturelle Germanistik* (*GIG*) in 1984, which now has more than 250 co-opted members worldwide (Wierlacher 1987b: 13, 1994: 39; Albrecht 1996: 39).²⁵ The field of *Interkulturelle Germanistik* developed out of a growing awareness that *Muttersprachengermanistik* (German-speaking Germanistik) in the German-speaking countries and *Fremdsprachengermanistik* (Germanistik abroad) operate under fundamentally different conditions and thus a special approach was (and is) required when teaching the subject to students of different cultural backgrounds. According to Wierlacher (1987b: 14), Intercultural German Studies is intended to take into account:²⁶

die hermeneutischen Unterschiede zwischen der Germanistik im fremdsprachigen Ausland („Auslandsgermanistik“), der muttersprachigen Germanistik deutschsprachiger Länder („Inlandsgermanistik“ [oder Binnengermanistik]) und dem zwischen beiden Varianten angesiedelten Fach Deutsch als Fremdsprache.

The subject was initially developed by Wierlacher and Krusche, who both believed that the subject should be learner oriented rather than along the lines of an established canon of literary texts. The subject was supposed to be rooted in comparative contemporary cultural studies rather than the traditional historical perspective of Germanistik.²⁷ According to Wierlacher (1992: 190), Intercultural German Studies is:

eine germanistische Disziplin, die im Koordinatendreieck von Fremdsprachengermanistik, Deutsch als Fremdsprache und Grundsprachengermanistik Perspektiven auf Deutsches, die Deutschen und die deutschsprachigen Länder weder hierarchisch ordnet noch als Hindernis einschätzt, sondern als Quelle zu besserem, weil multiperspektivischem Sehen erkennt und anerkennt. [...]

²⁴ Cf. Glück 1994; Henrici 1998; Helbig 1998.

²⁵ Cf. Wierlacher 1975, 1980a, 1980b; Veit 1988: 29-30.

²⁶ Cf. Wierlacher 1990.

²⁷ Cf. Zimmermann 1989; Hernig 2000: 34-39.

Allgemeines Forschungs- und Lehrziel der „interkulturellen Germanistik“ ist [...] die Erforschung und Vermittlung deutschsprachiger Gegenwartskultur(en) und ihrer Geschichte mit dem Ziel der Befähigung der (deutschen und ausländischen) Studierenden zu verschiedenen Berufen der international und interkulturellen Zusammenarbeit.

Intercultural German Studies overlaps to some extent with the aims of *DaF*. However, there are five major components within the subject area (*Bayreuther Mitteilungen* 1996: 14).²⁸

- 1) Literaturforschung und Literaturlehrforschung (Deutsch als fremdkulturelle Literatur)
- 2) Deutsche Gegenwartssprache und fremdsprachlicher Deutschunterricht
- 3) Deutsche Landeskunde
- 4) Fremdsprache (Xenologie) und interkulturelle Kommunikation
- 5) Kulturkomparatistik

Wierlacher (1985b) defines literature as a central component of Intercultural German Studies as he believes literature plays an important role in the teaching and learning of intercultural competencies. Both *DaF* and *Interkulturelle Germanistik* programmes usually include a *Praktikum* or study abroad component (*Bayreuther Mitteilungen* 1996: 19). Appendix Three contains an example of a programme in *Interkulturelle Germanistik* as offered at Bayreuth University (*Bayreuther Mitteilungen* 1996: 11).²⁹

Rösler (1994: 151-152) contends that Intercultural German Studies has been one of the most successful innovations within Germanistik in the past twenty years in terms of spread internationally (at least in discussions). However, the discipline has been criticised in recent years because of the difficulties in clearly defining *Interkulturelle Germanistik* as distinct from components of *DaF* (Rösler 1994: 151-152).³⁰

Breidenbach and Zukrigl (2000: 41) contend that the:³¹

globalized financial and goods markets, worldwide media structures and migration flows have all led to an exponential increase in the process of cultural exchange.

Wierlacher (1987b: 15) and Picht (1987) agree saying that the increasing integration of the world means the need for cultural competencies is increasing and that Intercultural German Studies is one method of achieving this. Bräsel (1998: 116) suggests interdisciplinary studies with components of vocational and cultural competencies as a solution.

During the 1990s there has continued to be diversification within the discipline in German-speaking countries in light of the political reforms and changes in the Eastern European countries and the increasing complexity of global trade. These changes have increased the demand for *DaF* programmes in the German-speaking countries, and this has now become

²⁸ Cf. Wazel 1990: 374; Wierlacher 1992: 182.

²⁹ Cf. Wierlacher 1987c.

³⁰ Cf. Zimmermann 1989; Thum 1993: 134-142; Ehnert 1994; Glück 1994; Henrici 1994; Ickler 1994b; Hernig 2000: 14-19.

³¹ Cf. von Barloewen 2000; Beneke 2000.

a central academic subject, which in 1994 was offered at 33 German universities (Henrici and Koreik 1994b: 21-34). More recent trends include the introduction of programmes in international and intercultural communication (in response to the social changes caused by the rapid internationalisation process at both the general and academic levels), and the introduction of degree programmes taught in English at universities in order to attract more foreign students and to 'internationalise' academia in German-speaking Europe (Müller 1993; House 1996; Slivensky 1999; Hernig 2000: 39-43; Wakisaka 2000: 23-24).³²

According to Slivensky (1999: 816-817), however, much remains to be done. The Binnengermanistik, she argues:

müsse sich dem tiefgreifenden gesellschaftlichen und ökonomischen Wandel stellen und ein Forschungs- und Lehrprofil entwickeln, das auf der Grundlage der Fachtraditionen sozio-kulturelle Entwicklungen (z.B. Informationstechnologien, der Einfluß neuer Medien auf die Kommunikation) systematisch einbezieht.

I.2 Objectives of Research.

Against this background of changing parameters of the discipline internationally the objectives of this study are as follows:

- (1) To identify the factors and trends (historical, political, economic, educational and social) that have impacted on the discipline in a selected number of Asian-Pacific countries, namely China, Japan, Korea, Australia and New Zealand;
- (2) To ascertain what innovations have occurred within the discipline in these countries in response to the changing parameters; and
- (3) Based on these findings, to formulate recommendations for the future structuring of German in New Zealand, in order to maximise the effectiveness, attractiveness and potential of the discipline.

The discipline of German Studies in New Zealand operates in an environment of interrelated political, economic and educational factors and any planning and development of the discipline cannot ignore these parameters. In order to be successful and make an appropriate contribution to the country, the discipline clearly has to define its place and function. Such a functional approach to German Studies will, we believe, greatly enhance the value of the subject from a national perspective and will assist students of German to develop focused study and career perspectives.

³² An array of publications relating to these developments, particularly *DaF* and *Interkulturelle Germanistik*, is available. For further details, please refer to the *Jahrbuch DaF*, *Info DaF*, *Materialien Deutsch als Fremdsprache* and *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* journal series; Wierlacher 1980a, 1980b, 1985a, 1987a, 1999; Picht 1985; Zimmermann 1989; Thum & Fink 1993; Ehnert 1992; Ehnert & Schröder 1994; Rösler 1994: 154-183; Wolff & Blei 1997; Nitz 1999; Kuri 2001; <http://www.ualberta.ca/~german/ejournal/anderswo.htm> (5 May 2001) amongst other sources.

Significant contributions to the discussion and implementation of such a functional understanding of the discipline of German Studies have already been made at the University of Waikato and elsewhere. At Waikato, for instance, the German section has been part of the Department of European and Hispanic Studies since January 1997. This was a structural change intended to reflect not only an administrative re-organisation but also to emphasise an integrated approach to German Studies in the context of 'Area Studies', encompassing, in addition to language, literature and cultural issues, the political, social and economic aspects of German-speaking countries. Applied research projects at the graduate level were introduced focusing on issues where the interests of New Zealand and the German-speaking countries are interconnected. These applied projects enable students to make use of the language, area and cultural competencies acquired during the course of their study and represent a response to the challenge by Picht (1987), Wierlacher (1980c: 19) and others for foreign language studies to become "*berufsfeldproduktiv*" (job relevant). The present study can, therefore, be regarded as a natural continuation of these developments.

Considerable detail is provided on the development and context of German in the individual countries in order to create an awareness and an understanding of the complexity of the factors that impact on the discipline, thus enabling us to formulate a concept of German Studies, which is responsive to the actual parameters of the New Zealand situation.³³ The complexity of factors impacting on the discipline in these countries is illustrated, for instance, by the socio-political situation in China. The contradiction(s) between economic reforms and liberalisation during the past two decades and the politically dominated and regimented society and historical events such as the Cultural Revolution, have influenced and shaped the opportunities for and the reality of teaching and learning German in China.³⁴

Rather than basing notions of how the subject should be structured on ahistorical or abstract assumptions, we believe that it is imperative to identify the specific parameters under which the discipline operates in order to develop models that are workable in the New Zealand context.³⁵ To verify the theoretical hypothesis underpinning this research, i.e. that a broad range of factors have impacted on and continue to impact on the discipline, the collation of a mass of detailed information on the factors and the trends, such as globalisation, education reforms, the changing status of languages worldwide and changes in the political orientation of the countries included in this study, was necessary. This data, therefore, which is subsequently analysed and interpreted constitutes a significant portion of my thesis.

³³ Cf. Picht 1985: 149.

³⁴ Cf. Hess 1992a: 1-2.

³⁵ Cf. Mau 1983: 3; Petersen 1993: 3; Grünewald 1999a.

I.3 Methodology of Research and Outline of Chapters.

In order to provide international reference points for a discussion of the New Zealand situation, **Part II** investigates the context and concept of Germanistik in selected culturally and politically diverse Asian-Pacific countries. This evaluation also establishes whether any conceptual changes have occurred in these countries during the past two decades. The study concentrates on an analysis of German Studies in China, Japan, Korea and Australia. The number of countries included in this research was limited to these four (plus New Zealand in Part III) given the restraints of space and the amount of detail included. The countries selected have in some instances had strong historical links with Germany. Furthermore New Zealand shares with these countries its position on the Pacific Rim and a history of major recent and continuing re-orientation and restructuring in the political, economic and educational fields. These countries, therefore, provide interesting case studies.

The analysis of the individual countries focuses in particular on the following:

- The introduction and development of foreign languages;
- The role and teaching of foreign languages in the school system, with a particular emphasis on German;
- The role of foreign languages in the tertiary sector, including changes and reforms in the tertiary sector since 1945 and their effect on foreign language teaching and learning; and
- The development of the discipline of Germanistik and German Studies and examples of innovation and reorientation in the field of German during the past two decades.

The research is based largely on the diverse range of published materials available including research articles and books relating to the discipline in the countries included in the study, policy documents, University Calendars, departmental handbooks, course information and listings, departmental and subject related internet sites and on a limited amount of personal correspondence with representatives of the discipline in the selected countries.³⁶ The advantage of this method is that relatively comprehensive documentation is available on which to base one's analysis. The author, therefore, did not have to rely on questionnaires and their inevitably limited statistical relevance.

Part III gives a detailed evaluation of the framework, context and national parameters impacting on the German Studies discipline in New Zealand.

- **Section III.1** outlines New Zealand's socio-political re-orientation towards the Asia-Pacific and the reforms in the education sector during the past two decades.

³⁶ An English translation of all quotes given in German in the body of the text can be found in Appendix One.

- **Section III.2** details aspects of foreign language learning and teaching in New Zealand including the trend towards language diversity, the lack of a languages policy and the significance of the German language to New Zealand.
- **Section III.3** gives a brief historical overview of German and the discipline of Germanistik/German Studies in New Zealand.
- **Section III.4** details the reforms and changes during the past two decades in the German Studies discipline at New Zealand Universities.

III.4.1 outlines the impact of degree regulations on the programmes offered, including an overview of the regulatory requirements pertaining to a 'major' in German at New Zealand Universities. This is important in that the courses (or modules or papers)³⁷ that constitute a 'major' are those which students must take and, therefore, form the core or essence of any programme. These courses most clearly reflect any departmental orientation or philosophy and any change in this, such as a move away from Middle High German Language and Literature or the introduction of new elements such as Linguistics or Contemporary European Studies.

III.4.2 gives a brief introduction to the individual German departments or sections including the general areas of the discipline covered by the programmes offered, whether or not the department or section is an independent one or part of a larger department of European languages and the research and teaching interests of the staff.

III.4.3 contains a comparative analysis of the trends in German Studies at New Zealand Universities.

III.4.3.1 outlines the impact of institutional reforms and restructuring, such as amalgamation or downsizing of the departments, on the German programmes offered during the past two decades.

III.4.3.2 analyses the changes in the emphasis of programmes offered. Departmental course offerings are analysed according to broad categories that form the core components of the programme(s): language acquisition, German linguistics, German literature, literary theory and methodology, culture/civilisation, contemporary German (and European) issues and 'other' and research options.³⁸ The elimination or addition of courses within particular categories might reflect a conscious shift in departmental orientation as well as a change in the marketing of the subject itself and or the perceived student demand.

³⁷ Some universities use the term 'paper', others the term 'course'.

³⁸ Under 'other' the author refers to any courses offered by the departments or sections that do not strictly fit into any of the other categories of analysis.

This approach cannot guarantee that the findings are entirely consistent with the actual programmes offered or any shifts in departmental orientation as the list of courses taught in any given department does not reflect the full research and scholarship undertaken at a particular institution. For instance, the deletion of a course focused on genre may not necessarily mean that the study of the genres has been omitted altogether. It may be that it was discussed within another course, the title of which suggests it focused on a particular literary period. However, while this method may have its limitations, it still proves a useful approach to the systematic evaluation of the programmes offered.

Other factors, including whether or not courses were a compulsory part of a major in German, whether or not the literary courses offered were based on a perception of a canon, the number of contact or teaching hours, the question of available resources, changes in staffing levels and the research interests of staff are (where appropriate) also taken into consideration.

III.4.3.3 outlines the development of interdisciplinary and intercultural courses and programmes at several universities in New Zealand.

III.4.3.4 gives a brief overview of the developments and innovations that have occurred during the late 1990s and during 2000 and 2001.

Part IV formulates a number of recommendations for the future development of German Studies within New Zealand. These reflect the recent changes in the political, economic and linguistic environment as well as those in education both nationally and internationally. This chapter argues that a functional approach to German Studies will ensure a productive development of the discipline.

- **Section IV.1** outlines the factors and trends impacting on German Studies in the Asia-Pacific region.

IV.1.1 illustrates the historical and political parameters of the discipline.

IV.1.2 discusses the globalisation process and the dominance of English.

IV.1.3 outlines the trend towards a vocational focus.

IV.1.4 outlines the changes in the education system impacting on the foreign languages disciplines.

- **Section IV.2** outlines the key responses of the discipline of German Studies in the Asia-Pacific to these changes.
- **Section IV.3** recommends a move towards a functional definition of the discipline of German Studies in New Zealand. This definition would place increased emphasis on the recognition of the vocational potential of the discipline, the professionalisation of the discipline, the question of critical mass,

the establishment of 'centres of excellence' and on the need for 'product specification' and the marketing of the discipline.

I.4 Limitations of Research.

The current study does not aim to comprehensively analyse the development of the discipline internationally nor is it intended to subject the discipline to a line of enquiry from an educational perspective, but rather this study attempts to clearly establish the major factors and trends that have impacted in recent years on the discipline in the selected Asian-Pacific countries, thus providing the essential background to the New Zealand chapters. This study, therefore, cannot be regarded as exhaustive (nor was it intended to be) as some factors, such as linguistic differences, social and cultural factors and the history and ideology of education in the individual countries, have been dealt with only relatively superficially. The clearly pluricentric nature of the discipline is one such factor that this study largely excludes. However, the findings suggest that the factors impacting on the discipline have resulted in similar trends in these five countries whatever the variant of the discipline there may be or have been. Factors, such as gender imbalances, the age and socio-economic background of students of German, have been excluded from this study because of the focus on reforms and trends in the political, economic and educational sectors. Where applicable, readers are referred to sources of information or further reading and to the wider international context to which this study attempts to add.

There were some difficulties in obtaining information. For instance, in New Zealand little data on the teaching and learning of foreign languages (particularly at the tertiary level) is kept. In Australia data is recorded in different ways in the various states and education systems and sometimes proved to be incomplete. In China, Japan and Korea there were language difficulties with some sources, and government policies in China mean, for instance, that correspondence with foreigners is restricted. For these reasons, some sources of information were unobtainable. Some of these are listed in the bibliography as 'Related Publications and Materials'. Wherever possible the details regarding the discipline in a particular country given in Part II were checked for accuracy by academics within the discipline in these countries. In the case of China this was not possible.

Given the rapid changes in recent years, for instance in China, the most recent changes may have escaped the author's attention. In undertaking this research the author is also aware of the fact that regional differences do exist. One of the more definitive is perhaps the considerable interest in and expansion of German Studies and Germanistik in particular in the countries of the former Eastern European Block. This, however, does not invalidate the major findings of this research.

Part II: The International Context: German in China, Japan, Korea and Australia.

II.1 German in China.

II.1.1 Introduction.

For most of its history, China³⁹ has remained isolated from outside influence. In the 18th century the then government of the Qing dynasty realised that it was necessary to teach and learn foreign languages (Bauer 1982: x; Ni 1991: 208). The isolation from foreign influence, however, continued into the 20th century, in particular during the 1966 to 1976 Cultural Revolution (Hieber 1983: 181; Günthner 1988: 3; Wei 1992: 322).

Significant changes in the economic and social structure of China in recent years have led to a more balanced view of foreign countries as compared with the previous emphasis on the negative aspects. These changes have increased the level of information students have access to and this has had consequences for foreign language teaching and learning.⁴⁰ Dai and Zhang (1996: 151) describe the changes in China's internal and international policies, saying that:⁴¹

die Reform und Öffnungspolitik in China nach außen hat günstige Bedingungen für die wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und den akademischen Austausch mit dem Ausland geschaffen. Ebenso haben die wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und der akademische Austausch die chinesische Öffnungspolitik vorangetrieben.

In order to continue this development China urgently requires graduates trained in specific professions who also have good foreign language skills. The training of such individuals and improvements in the quality of the foreign language programmes offered must, therefore, be an urgent priority for the Chinese government and education system.

The increasing political, economic and cultural relations between Germany and China are diverse as are the cooperation and exchange of expertise and technology based on these relations, particularly in the field of foreign language learning (Möhn 1985: 1; Timmermann 1999: 481).⁴² Courses in German are offered at a diverse range of educational institutions from foreign language middle schools, foreign language institutes through to the (technical) universities and colleges in China. English, however, is the dominant first foreign language in China as elsewhere in Asia (and internationally) due to the associated economic advantages (Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 590; Zimmer 1996: 75).

³⁹ For the purpose of this study, the Chinese territories or special economic zones of Taiwan (cf. Kuo 1992; Chen 1996, 1999; Hess 2000: 9-10) and Hong Kong (cf. Widera 1992; Hess & Wingate 1994; Wingate 1996; Hess 1999a, 1999b, 2000: 10; Wannagat 1999) have been excluded from this study, with the exception of a brief description of innovations in German programmes offered in Hong Kong in section II.1.4.3.

⁴⁰ Cf. Hess 1992a: 156; Liang 1995: 231.

⁴¹ Cf. Bieg 1986: 333; Timmermann 1999: 481.

⁴² Cf. Bork 1983: 7-14; Han 1990: 151.

Western academics often regard the problems encountered when teaching German in China as being due to the 'traditional' teaching methods and cultural values, but Hess (1999b: 175) says that one must remember there is:⁴³

heute kaum eine Region der Welt, in der das Erziehungswesen – und damit auch Deutsch als Fremdsprache – einem solch kreativen, vielfältigen Erneuerungsprozeß ausgesetzt ist wie China.

According to Hess (1992a: 2), German in China is different from the discipline in other countries:

zuvörderst durch die besonderen gesellschaftspolitischen Rahmenbedingungen. Die ökonomische und politische Struktur des Landes, die Widersprüche von Wirtschaftsreform und politischer Orthodoxie und die historischen Erfahrungen in vierzig Jahren Volksrepublik bestimmen auch die Art und Weise, in der in DaF-Klassenzimmern agiert wird, sie bestimmten auch Chancen und Realität von DaF-Konzeptionen.

II.1.2 Foreign Languages in the Chinese School System: With a Particular Emphasis on German.

II.1.2.1 The introduction and development of foreign languages in China: a historical perspective.

The recorded introduction into and the development of foreign languages in China dates back to when the Italian Franciscan monk, Monte Corvino, wrote in 1305 of 150 children in Beijing who were learning Greek or Latin. Foreign languages were taught by the Catholic Church as part of its attempts to introduce Catholicism into China. These lessons aimed to teach the students about the culture of the West through the language and religion. In 1407 the first Foreign Language and Translation School was established in the capital as the Chinese were increasingly coming in contact with foreign guests (Chen 1999: 193). By 1511 there were nine Foreign Language Institutes in which the languages of the neighbouring countries were taught. However, these schools had collapsed by 1566 due to a lack of both teachers and students. After churches were banned in China, those interested in learning Latin were forced to go to China's South East Asian neighbours (today's Vietnam, the Philippines or Thailand) or even to European countries, such as England, France or Portugal (Chen 1999: 193).

The Nirtschinsk treaty (1689) was written in Manchurian, Latin and Russian. Because Chinese and Russian are so different, in construction for example, Latin was used with the help of Franciscan monks to resolve any misunderstandings. After China signed this border treaty with Russia, it became clear that Russia posed a potential threat, which the Chinese had to come to terms with, necessitating the learning of the Russian language (Chen 1999: 194). In 1727 the *Halle für Russisch* was established and besides Latin, Russian was the

⁴³ Cf. Deichsel 1989: 115; Hess 2000: 2.

focus of the linguistic courses (Ni 1991: 208). Graduates were mainly given positions in foreign relations with Russia.

In the 18th and 19th centuries Western countries, including England, France, Italy, Germany, Russia, and Japan, attempted to colonise parts of China and established numerous language institutes.⁴⁴ Only after the Opium war (1840 to 1842), which China lost, were the Chinese forced to learn about foreign countries and languages, not just Latin, which had until then been the dominant foreign language in China (Ni 1991: 208). While the Qing government resented being essentially forced into political, economic and cultural contact with the West, they nevertheless were interested in obtaining the progressive technology and industrial knowledge that Western countries possessed (Huang 1996: 61), thus requiring the Chinese to change their attitude towards other languages (Zhang 1985:168-169; Chen 1999: 194).⁴⁵

One of the measures introduced was the establishment in 1862 of the first official institution for translators, the Tong Wen Institute for Foreign Languages, where English, French and Russian were taught initially. German and Japanese were added later. For the first time (at least officially) translators and interpreters were trained in foreign languages. Ni (1991: 208) describes the high level of interest in foreign language learning at the time as being evidence of the gradual opening up of China to the outside world:⁴⁶

Das Fremdsprachenlernen fand bei damaligen Hochschulstudenten besonders großes Interesse, wohl ein Anzeichen dafür, daß China sich allmählich bewußt wurde, in internationalen Angelegenheiten mitwirken zu wollen.

The history of relations between the German Reich and China has influenced the introduction into and development of German in China (Bork 1983: 7). The German Reich did not attempt to establish itself as a colonial power in China until the late 19th century and had less influence on China than France, England or America partially because it was not as clearly definable as a nation state as these countries were. However, the Reich did have influence through three areas the Chinese considered to be the strengths of German scholarship: military technology, philosophy and jurisprudence (Bauer 1982: x-xi). Bauer (1982: xi) contends that, in contrast, German literature was introduced on a much smaller scale than French or English literature because of "certain cultural limitations peculiar to German fiction, rendering it vastly incomprehensible for a readership of such a distant culture as the Chinese" and was only found agreeable "where it appeared to respond to familiar Chinese traits as did Goethe's poetry that struck emotional cords on account of its preoccupation with nature and romanticism."⁴⁷

⁴⁴ Cf. Bauer 1982: x; Ni 1991: 208.

⁴⁵ Chinese as a cultural or literary language has been the dominant language in Asia during past few centuries with little change (Coulmas 1991b: 2-3, 6; Chen 1999: 194). Coulmas describes the Chinese literary language and characters as having defined social rather than national boundaries in the past.

⁴⁶ Cf. Huang 1996: 61; Hernig 2000: 129.

⁴⁷ Cf. Zhang 1985:168-169.

The German Reich, a relatively weak colonial power in China, attempted to increase its economic opportunities and the spread of German-speaking culture through education. Between 1907 and 1910 a number of German-financed and staffed schools, polytechnics and colleges were established, which (with the exception of Tongji Medical School) were closed at the beginning of World War I (WWI) or during the Japanese occupation. However during this relatively short period the number of students attending these institutions tripled (Bork 1983: 7; Hess 1992a: 368-372; Huang 1996: 61-62).

In 1911 English became a compulsory subject in Chinese middle schools, the Chinese equivalent of high or secondary schools (Ni 1991: 208-209). Germany and Japan were regarded as examples of rapid industrialisation and foreign languages, including German, were regarded as instruments of (economic and technological) modernisation. German was offered at Peking State Translation School in 1871, the same year as China first imported Krupp canons! During this period a number of books, mainly dictionaries, for those learning German, were produced or translated from other languages (such as Japanese) into Chinese (Huang 1996: 62). The German Polytechnic system of training and education was of particular interest, and those students and academics sent to Germany, such as Cai Yuanpei who became the Education Minister of the Chinese Republic in 1911, returned to fulfil a kind of mediator role.⁴⁸

Chinese interest in the German language and knowledge related primarily to the aims of industry (Hernig 2000: 129). For this reason, school and tertiary level projects administered by both the Chinese and Germans were supported in China, particularly in the German colonial area of Shandong and industrial cities like Shanghai, Wuhan and Guangzhou (Kanton). Polytechnic middle schools under joint Chinese-German management prepared students for the technical universities and colleges in Qingdao, Shanghai and Hankou (Wuhan), which had also been founded with German support. Until 1914 the German language was taught in these institutions and the specialist training also took place in German.

One such institution was the Tongji Medical School, the forerunner of Tongji University, founded by the German doctor E. Paulun in 1907 and financed by a foundation that supported Germany's developing academic relations with foreign countries. Students received three to four years teaching in the German language, including classes in essay writing, grammar and conversation (Huang 1996: 62-63). To accommodate the rapidly increasing number of students, one-year intensive courses were introduced around 1920 with 18 hours German per week and classes in Chinese, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and other subjects. The teaching methods used in the school were influenced by the

⁴⁸ Cf. Hess 2000: 2.

German model at that time: objects would be shown to the class or pictures drawn on the board, then the teacher would explain in German and students would learn the language and grammar by repetition. Until the Japanese occupation (in the 1930s and early 1940s) the Tongji Medical School was well regarded and many of its graduates went to Germany to undertake further study (Bork 1983: 7).⁴⁹

For political reasons the administration of this institution (and the associated Engineering School in Shanghai) was removed from German control in 1917 and the institution was renamed the *Tung-Chi Medizinschule und Technische Hochschule*. However, German remained the language of teaching, and classes continued to be taught by native German-speaking staff (Huang 1996: 64). In 1927 a national movement against the oppression of China by foreign powers began. Subsequently all classes had to be taught in Chinese in the foreign schools and universities and the German funding for Tongji ended. The Education Minister at the time, Cai Yuanpei, who himself had studied in Germany, provided the necessary funding and the institution was again renamed, the State Tung-Chi University. The following year, however, the Japanese destroyed most of the university's facilities. The new Education Minister, Zhu Jia Hua, who had studied at Tongji from 1907 to 1914, again provided the necessary funding to rebuild, and until 1934 the university enjoyed increased student numbers and the addition of a new science faculty. However, to survive the anti-Japanese war, the university (like many other universities and colleges) was forced to shift to different locations in seven different provinces of China and to Vietnam between 1937 and 1945! During this period most of the German staff returned to Germany because of the political situation (Huang 1996: 65).

The university moved back to Shanghai in 1946 and began to rebuild following the 1945 capitulation of the Japanese. Only after the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949 was German abolished as the primary language of teaching at Tongji University and Russian became the compulsory first foreign language. From 1950 until the late 1970s German was taught only as a second foreign language at Tongji. Due to the changing political situation in China and the general reform of the tertiary education sector in 1952, the university was divided up and the medical and mechanical engineering faculties shifted to other universities in Wuhan and Shanghai (Kelz 1982: 78; Huang 1996: 65-66).

Since the founding of the People's Republic of China the teaching and learning of foreign languages has developed rapidly. English and Russian were the languages most often learnt during the 1950s, although Russian was essentially the first foreign language at the time. After the break in relations between the Soviet Union and China in 1959, English, German, French and Spanish became popular again. Today English is the most commonly learnt foreign language and German, which historically occupied fifth place after English,

⁴⁹ Cf. Kelz 1982: 77-82; Fluck 1984: 161; Fluck & Liang 1989: 92; Han 1990: 152; Hess 1992a: 375-377; Liang 1995: 301-302.

Russian, French and Spanish, is now the third most popular foreign language in China after English and Russian (Zhu 1987: 244; Ni 1991: 209; Hess 1992a: 103-105).⁵⁰

II.1.2.2 Changes and reforms in the Chinese school system since 1945.

The history of the Chinese education system, particularly since 1949, has been dominated by the conflict between the traditional Confucian education system restricted to the elite and the communist theory that education is (Mauger 1974: 8-9):⁵¹

an essential instrument of class struggle and revolution, [...] that productive labour was the basis of society and that therefore education must be seen to be an integral part of productive labour by regular student participation in productive labour.

The traditional Chinese system before 1949 was a combination of the Chinese classical or Confucian education system and elements of foreign influence. The education system was influenced by the Japanese education system and, indirectly, the British, German and French systems during the latter part of the 19th century and the early 20th century and from the early 1920s onwards by the American Educationalist Dewey (Cleverley 1985: 29-41; Mitschian 1992a: 7-12).⁵²

Pupils attended (junior and senior) primary schools from the age of seven to thirteen, and those who could afford to then attended (junior and senior) middle schools. Entrance to the senior middle schools, often financially unattainable, was allowed only after completion of a rigorous examination. There were three types of middle school: general academic, teacher training and vocational. The subjects taught at the primary level were mathematics, the natural sciences, history, geography, physical culture, drawing, ethics, Chinese and the classics. At middle schools Chinese literature, the classics, economics, biology, chemistry, physics, history, geography, a foreign language (usually English or Japanese) and physical culture were taught.

Despite this seemingly organised system, only fifteen percent of Chinese children received a basic primary education and few attended middle school in 1937 (at the beginning of the full-scale Japanese invasion). Even fewer received higher education, most of these attended the foreign controlled or influenced institutions on the Eastern seaboard cities. During the Japanese occupation and WWII the education system almost collapsed. Over 80 percent of educational institutions were located in the Japanese occupied zones and many were forced to relocate as campuses were taken over for barracks and supply depots. Japanese language, policies and ideas were taught and Japanese advisors placed in schools. Mission schools and other private institutions were forced to close or suspend operations (Cleverly 1985: 64-66). One result of the collapse of the education system was that 90 percent of the population was illiterate by 1949 (Mauger 1974: 6, 10).

⁵⁰ Cf. Sui 1988: 109; Han 1990: 157; Ammon 1991a: 505; Koshina 1997: 7.

⁵¹ Cf. Mauger 1974: 5, 9-10; Cleverley 1985: xi, 1-28; Mitschian 1992a: 20, 1997: 395-396.

⁵² Cf. Zhang 1989.

While revolutionary communist ideals developed during the 1930s and 1940s and included education for everyone and education as a lifelong process “essential for the success of the struggle for national independence” (Mauger 1974: 6), it was not until 1949 that these could be implemented when the establishment of a central state financed and administrated school system began (Liang 1999: 200-201).⁵³ Drastic changes were needed in 1949 after the establishment of the Republic to ensure that the educational objectives contained in the Communist programme were achieved. Teachers were required, “not only in enormous quantities but with revolutionary ideology and the determination to transform every aspect of the educational process.” (Mauger 1974: 10)⁵⁴

The Chinese education system expanded and developed under the Soviet influence between 1952 and 1955. Teachers and materials were imported from the Soviet Union. While inheriting the traditional methods of teaching and learning, foreign language teaching methods from the Soviet Union and the GDR were assimilated (Mauger 1974: 11).⁵⁵ By 1956 the national education system had been established and consolidated. At that time there were 64 million primary school pupils as compared with about 24 million in 1949, and circa 6 million more attended middle school as compared with an estimated 1 million in 1949 (Mauger 1974: 12-14). Mass literacy campaigns also began in 1956 and aimed to teach all people to read and write. The expansion and consolidation of the education system was a direct reflection of the general economic, social and political development between 1949 and 1956.⁵⁶ During that period the country recovered from the recent wars, experienced rapid economic growth and underwent the collectivisation of the agricultural land. By 1956 the socialist foundation of China’s economy had essentially been established.

Between 1956 and 1965 various political and social movements, such as the 100 Flowers Campaign (1956/1957) and the Great Leap Forward (1958/1959), influenced the education system as the communist party attempted to lessen the divide between the academics and intellectuals and the uneducated masses. Higher education entrance requirements were changed. Over half of new enrolments, for instance, were required to be from the lower peasant classes (Mauger 1974: 14-23; Cleverley 1985: 141-161).⁵⁷ Relations between the Soviet Union and China were severed due to political differences in 1959 and this led to English replacing Russian as the dominant foreign language taught in schools (Mauger 1974: 19-23, 33-34).⁵⁸

⁵³ Cf. Cleverley 1985: 92-126.

⁵⁴ Cf. Kwong 1979.

⁵⁵ Cf. Shi & Seifman 1976: 40-84; Cleverley 1985: 127-140; Bieg 1986: 335; Hess 1992a: 61-64; Mitschian 1992a: 12-15.

⁵⁶ Cleverley (1985: 1) points out the disparity between the circa 182 million students in schools and universities in 1984 and the 235 million illiterate or semi literate Chinese above the age of 12 years, saying that this is a direct reflection of the fact that mass education in China is a recent phenomenon.

⁵⁷ Cf. Shi & Seifman 1976: 87-110; Kwong 1979; Hess 1992a: 53-73.

⁵⁸ Cf. Cleverley 1985: 135-137; Shi & Seifman 1976: 111-186.

In 1966 the Cultural Revolution began, led initially by students with the aim of changing the old education system to more closely reflect the aims of the communist party. Mauger (1974: 26) describes the changes in education undertaken during the Cultural Revolution citing part of the sixteen-point plan perpetuated by the government at the time:⁵⁹

In the great proletarian Cultural Revolution a most important task is to transform the old education system and the old principles and methods of teaching. In this great Cultural Revolution, the phenomenon of our schools being dominated by bourgeois intellectuals must be completely changed. In every kind of school we must apply thoroughly the policy advanced by Comrade Mao Tse-tung of education serving proletarian politics and education being combined with productive labour, so as to enable those receiving an education to develop morally, intellectually and physically and to become labourers with socialist consciousness and culture.

During the Cultural Revolution (1966 to 1976) the education system and foreign language teaching and learning were in total chaos. Teachers and intellectuals, regarded as enemies of the revolution, were tortured and forced into labour camps for re-education through hard labour. There was no real foreign language teaching and learning as foreign languages were considered by the ruling party to be unnecessary, even dangerous. Where German, for example, was taught, it was politically tainted, and English lessons were simply drills of sentences, often including political dogma and ideology (Magner 1974: 384-388; Ni 1991: 210).⁶⁰

From the early 1970s schools known as the Worker-Peasant-Soldier schools were gradually established. The subjects taught were a mixture of work, military service and political and ideological teachings. Primary school pupils attended classes in politics and languages, mathematics, revolution literature and art, military training and physical culture and productive labour. Middle school pupils attended classes in Mao Tse-tung thought (including the history of the struggle between the two factions in the party), basic knowledge of agriculture, mathematics, physics, chemistry, and economic geography, revolutionary literature and art (including languages), military training and physical education and productive labour. Less emphasis was placed on classroom learning and more on self-teaching and practical production (Cleverley 1985: 180-199).⁶¹

The new curriculum required pupils to learn a foreign language although some schools continued to ban foreign languages, because they were considered politically contentious (Cleverley 1985: 188-190). Most pupils learnt English, although Russian was offered in some schools (Berger 1974: 46-47). Foreign languages were also taught in special Foreign Language Institutes in the major cities, which trained government functionaries for foreign service and intelligence work. Foreign language departments in the socialist universities were required to teach foreign language students to propagate the communist ideology to support and consolidate the revolution (Magner 1974: 384-388).

⁵⁹ Cf. Mauger 1974: 23-34; Shi & Seifman 1976: 187-240; Hess 1992a: 73.

⁶⁰ Cf. Cleverley 1985: 166-179; Hess 1992a: 108-134.

⁶¹ Cf. Berger 1974: 44; Mauger 1974: 30-34; Magner 1974: 385; Hess 1992a: 64, 79-93.

Political ideology pervaded (and continues to pervade) all levels of education in China (Cleverley 1985: 186-188). As a consequence of the rapid expansion of the education system, the political ideology of the ruling party has been taught to a large percentage of the population (even at the kindergarten level!) in order that the Chinese citizen “develop morally, intellectually and physically and become a worker with socialist consciousness and culture” (Mauger 1974: 37).⁶² In 1975 plans aimed at ensuring China would become a world economic force by the year 2000 were announced and the four maxims of modernisation, relating to agriculture, industry, national defence and science and technology, were adopted (Cleverley 1985: 211). These maxims had implications for the education system as China considered these, particularly the science and technology fields, to be the key to future development.

By 1981 circa 200 million pupils (or 94 percent of eligible children - at least officially) were attending primary and middle schools as compared with only 31 million in 1949 (Cleverley 1985: 253). The primary curriculum included Chinese, arithmetic, physical culture, music, politics, drawing, elementary knowledge of nature, some history and geography and productive work. A foreign language, often English, was taught to pupils above third grade. However, in rural areas limited resources and limited access often meant fewer subjects were offered, and consequently pupils received a less comprehensive basic schooling (Cleverley 1985: 232-236).⁶³

Chinese middle schools are divided into two sections: a three-year junior middle school for 12 to 15 year-olds and a two or three year senior middle school for 15 to 16 (or 17) year-olds. Access to these schools varies. For instance, of the 125.5 million middle school pupils in 1982, only 47.5 million of these were attending a senior middle school. The curriculum includes Chinese, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, a foreign language, history, geography, politics, physiology, music, fine arts and physical education. The general aim of the Chinese secondary education system is to teach vocationally oriented subjects as opposed to a purely academic education (Cleverley 1985: 236-240; Hess 1992a: 222-229).

At Chinese middle schools almost all pupils learn English as the first foreign language. Students are required to sit a state English examination or College English Test (CET). German is essentially taught only at tertiary level institutions, not as a school subject (Guangxi 1987: 421; Welge 1987: 194; Hess 1992b: 362, 1993: 61).⁶⁴ There are, however, a number of foreign language middle schools (associated with foreign language colleges) where pupils from ten years of age onwards learn foreign language as a main subject. At four of the nine such schools in China, namely in Beijing, Nanjing, Shanghai and Wuhan,

⁶² Cf. Mauger 1974: 73-75; Shi & Seifman 1976: 241-335; Kwong 1979; Hess 1992a: 2, 11, 53-93; Hernig 2000: 109-111.

⁶³ Cf. Hess 1992a: 214-215.

⁶⁴ Cf. Deichsel 1989: 48-49; Coulmas 1991b: 2-3, 22.

pupils receive six hours per week in German from the third grade onwards. A total of circa 740 middle school pupils are taught by circa 35 German teachers. According to Welge (1987: 194) that constitutes less than 0.01 percent of all pupils. These schools often prepare young students for study of foreign languages at one of the tertiary level foreign language colleges or universities. The teaching and learning of German, therefore, begins primarily at university after pupils have had six years of English lessons at school, and this is why German is often taught through English at beginning of their tertiary studies (Welge 1987: 195).⁶⁵

II.1.3 The Role of Foreign Languages in the Tertiary Sector.

II.1.3.1 Changes and reforms in the tertiary sector since 1945 and the effect on foreign language teaching and learning.

Prior to 1949 the tertiary institutions (many of which had been established with foreign financial and cultural support⁶⁶) offered courses in the classics, law, literature, medicine, the sciences, agriculture, engineering and commerce. However, these institutions were often poorly funded and resourced and education for women was limited (although it had began to develop) (Cleverley 1985: 38, 47-48).⁶⁷ Foreign language teaching and learning methodology was essentially a mix of the classical Chinese teaching methods based on learning vocabulary and grammar using selected texts learned by rote (Hess 1992a: 102-103).

To ensure that the educational objectives contained in the Communist programme could be achieved, both in the schools and in the tertiary sector, drastic reforms were required in 1949. Teachers, foreign language teaching methods and teaching materials were modeled on the Soviet example.⁶⁸ By 1956 the higher education sector had been reorganised along Russian lines. China's 227 universities and colleges were rationalised into 183 institutions of three types: comprehensive universities teaching the arts and the pure and applied sciences; polytechnics for the pure and applied sciences and technological disciplines, and single purpose institutions specialising in the professional fields like geology and mining, forestry, physical education and teacher training. Circa 441 000 students were studying at the tertiary level in 1956, a four-fold increase in just seven years (Mauger 1974: 12-14).

From 1966 through until 1976, however, the tertiary sector was again thrown into disarray by the Cultural Revolution, which aimed to abolish all foreign influence and to change the traditional Chinese class structure with intellectuals as the elite and farmers as the lower class (Bork 1983: 46-50). Education was regarded as revolutionary, bourgeois and revisionist. Everything foreign was banned. German, like other foreign languages, was no

⁶⁵ Cf. Zimmer 1996: 74.

⁶⁶ Cf. Cleverley 1985: 1-69; Shi & Seifman 1976: 2-38

⁶⁷ Women were first permitted to study at Tongji, for instance, in 1927 (Huang 1996: 64-65).

⁶⁸ Cf. Mauger 1974: 10-11; Shi & Seifman 1976: 40-84; Kwong 1979; Cleverley 1985: 127-140; Hess 1992a: 2, 11, 60-64, 104-105; Mitschian 1992a: 12-15.

longer taught.⁶⁹ Mao Tse-tung and his party abolished the examination process saying that it favoured the children of intellectuals. They also criticised the lack of practical orientation of university study and closed virtually all educational institutions in China. The (now surplus) teaching staff were sent to work and undergo so-called political re-education in factories or on the collective farms. Some were imprisoned as enemies of the people. It was illegal to own books and students had no access to foreign language literary or technical texts and were, therefore, forced to interrupt their studies. Many intellectuals were deeply depressed by these limitations, and some of the older Germanisten, for example, did not survive this period (Hess 1992a: 73-93).

In 1972 the first students were allowed to re-enrol at the universities. However, academic grades were not a prerequisite for entry but rather evidence that the student had worked in the production sector for two to three years. The correct political attitude also played a significant role. Teachers were not well trained (if at all) and the academic standard of university study declined, particularly as degree regulations were changed to enable students to complete their studies in just three years instead of the five previously required (Magner 1974: 390-391; Bork 1983: 49-50). In an effort to integrate theory and practice, universities and colleges worked closely with factories and local collectives (Cleverley 1985: 193, 195). University level courses, such as foreign languages, which were considered not absolute necessities, often continued to be omitted. Books that had previously been used in language courses were locked away and used only occasionally as negative examples (and always discussed in the political context). Foreign language teaching (if offered) had to be basic because many students had no prior middle school experience (Cleverley 1985: 189-190; Hess 1992a: 109, 161-162).

After the Cultural Revolution, China began a new development phase known as the 'Four Modernisations' (in industry, agriculture, science and technology and the national defence). Education was regarded as an integral part of this process (Ni 1991: 210). Teaching at Chinese universities normalised in 1977: achievement was prioritized with teaching and research again encouraged (Zhang 1985: 176). In 1977 new guidelines for the education sector were developed and a standardised university entrance examination was reintroduced after eleven years without one. Candidates selected five or six papers from mathematics, physics, chemistry, Chinese, history, politics, geography and a foreign language (Cleverley 1985: 223).

From 1978 onwards, academic titles were again recognised and by the end of 1979 there were 97 key universities. In 1978 the first students were allowed to continue onto graduate study (Cleverley 1985: 228-231). B.A., M.A. and PhD degrees were reintroduced in 1981 on the grounds that they facilitated internal development of academia and international

⁶⁹ Cf. Kelz 1982: 78-79; Zhang 1985: 173-176; Deichsel 1989: 3.

recognition (Cleverley 1985: 244). Cultural and scientific exchanges with foreign countries increased and this gave new impulse to foreign language research. Many authentic textbooks and teaching materials, such as *Deutsch 2000*, *Brennpunkte* and *Deutsch – ein Lehrwerk für Ausländer*, were introduced. Foreign academics from the German-speaking countries were invited to China and Chinese teachers of foreign languages were sent abroad for further training.⁷⁰

By 1982 there were circa 1.154 million students in full-time higher education as compared with circa 100 000 in 1949. There were 715 higher education institutions including 32 comprehensive universities funded by state ministries, provincial and municipal governments, autonomous regions and the Ministry of Education. All universities are currently subject to Ministry regulations, although the key universities have greater flexibility in the use of the funding provided (Cleverley 1985: 241-246, 251-253). During this period of development there was a trend towards emphasising the science and engineering disciplines (which were considered vital or relevant to China's development) at the expense of the arts, commerce, law, economics and agriculture. Subjects such as international law and environmental education have since been introduced. In 1997 there were 1032 tertiary education institutions and 3 021 079 students (Cleverley 1985: 243; Hess 1992a: 172-173; Hernig 2000: 112-116).

Approximately 25 percent of middle school graduates continue on to tertiary study in China. All students wishing to attend a tertiary institution must sit a standard nationwide centrally organised university entrance examination (as opposed to each province or university setting their own as in Korea). Only those with sufficiently high grades can continue onto tertiary education (Zimmer 1996: 86-87). And while the ranking of universities exists in China, it does not appear as crucially important as in Korea or Japan. Hess (1992: 356, 363) describes the education system as historically allowing little room for personal preferences and interests because the so-called teaching traditions were de facto protected by the political system and employment was assigned by a government agency.⁷¹ However, Hess (1992: 357) concedes there is now evidence of a gradual relaxation of the traditional strictness.

The changes and reforms during the past fifteen years in the education sector have been closely related to the economic and political changes and reforms. The teaching and learning of foreign languages at Chinese universities and colleges have been an integral part of the modernisation process (Zhu 1996: 77-79). Hess (1993: 69) describes the functionality of foreign languages, including German, in China as reflecting the political and economic reforms and developments. Foreign languages, such as English, Japanese and German,

⁷⁰ Cf. Hess 1992a: 157, 166-178

⁷¹ Cf. Hess 1992a: 218-221, 231-233.

continue to be instruments in this developmental process, and, therefore, technical terminology has always been a key element of German programmes in China.⁷²

The modernisation and liberalisation process China has undergone since 1976 has increased the popularity of the study of foreign languages, including English, Japanese, German, Russian and French. English is usually the first foreign language, followed by (according to the tradition of cooperation the particular university or college has) German, Japanese, French and Italian (Sui 1988: 110). Previously Russian was often the most popular second foreign language, however, now there is a trend towards Japanese and other Asian languages. The learning of at least one foreign language, usually English, is compulsory in all degree programmes in China (Zimmer 1996: 76-78, 83).

Problems faced by the foreign language disciplines include the lack of teacher training and the low status awarded to teaching as a profession (a hangover from the Cultural Revolution),⁷³ the continued need to educate the masses, an increasing population, the funding increases required, increasing numbers of Chinese students wanting to study overseas and vice versa, the effect of years of political distortion and issues affecting the education of women (Cleverley 1985: 246-247, 254-277). Another factor impacting on the teaching and learning of foreign languages in China is that Chinese universities have increasingly had to finance themselves. Nanjing University, for instance, had to find 90 percent of its budget in 1995. Annual fees students pay at universities have risen to approximately twice the monthly wage of a worker. Universities are also taking in increasing numbers of full fee-paying students, and increasing numbers of students are working alongside their studies, an unthinkable practice ten years ago (Lekher 1995: 441).⁷⁴

Socialist ideals underpin the education sector in China. For example, students must have a grounding in the fundamentals of Marxism, Leninism and Mao Tse-tung's ideas, must support the communist party of China in all they learn and do, must have a healthy body (through physical training) and be willing to defend the mother country (Bork 1983: 65).⁷⁵

The introduction and development of the socialist market economy has led to significant reforms in Chinese universities, including the establishment of new institutions and the decentralisation of education. Universities and colleges have been given more autonomy in the administration and planning of subjects, increasing the freedom of teachers and students.⁷⁶ The principle of competition is increasing and teachers are expected to offer new courses in both theory and practice. These changes have increased student choice, as they

⁷² Cf. Hess 1992a: 135-139, 152-157, 174-177; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 590.

⁷³ Cf. Hieber 1983: 181-186; Hess 1992: 178-197, 204.

⁷⁴ Cf. Hernig 2000: 118-119, 448-449.

⁷⁵ Cf. Han 1990: 154; Hess 1992a: 285; Hernig 2000: 109-111.

⁷⁶ Cf. Hess 1992a: 166-178, 213-218, 229-235, 464-471; Hernig 2000: 116-119.

can now change subjects (something that was not previously possible) or interrupt their studies for a year to work if they support themselves during their studies (Zhao 1998: 688).

Additionally, the original system, whereby graduates were assigned positions (which had little to do with the personal wishes of the students or their studies) by a central planning office, has now been abolished.⁷⁷ Since the early 1990s, Germanistik in China, along with the other foreign language disciplines, has, consequently, been under pressure from the employment market to change. International relations and cooperation are becoming increasingly important and necessary due to the rapid globalisation and internationalisation of the economy and academia: Chinese students urgently need intercultural competencies (Liu 1999: 785; Liang 1999: 203).

According to An (1999: 698-699), the rapid development of the modern disciplines and technology as well as the integration of these disciplines and technology with the humanities, the international development of the information age, and the modernisation, expansion and fundamental changes in China's economic system have had great influence on the tertiary education system. An believes that a major responsibility of tertiary education is to be closely connected to economic and social development, to serve that development and to ensure that highly qualified and flexible specialists are educated to drive the further expansion and modernisation of China.⁷⁸ These changes have meant that German departments have had the opportunity to develop diverse and innovative courses or programmes.

II.1.3.2 Languages in the competitive context: the example of German.

Foreign languages in China have increasingly found themselves in a competitive environment given the modernisation, liberalisation and diversification of the political, economic and social orientation of China and the increase and diversification of tertiary education providers. In addition, English is essentially the first foreign language in China. In this context, a number of additional factors, real or perceived, must also be taken into account when analysing the trends relating to German programmes in China. These include:

- The 'usefulness' or career application of a subject;
- The perception students have of a particular foreign language;
- Institutional factors (such as the curriculum requirements);
- Linguistic differences (between Chinese and German, for instance); and
- A number of social and cultural factors.

⁷⁷ Cf. Hess 1992b: 353, 368.

⁷⁸ Cf. Zhao 1998: 687.

The perceived 'usefulness' or career application of German is one significant factor. German in China is regarded in the first instance, according to Leonard (1994: 691), as a medium "mit dem man sich besser in der sich rasant entwickelnden Joint-Venture-Gesellschaft zurechtfinden kann" - an aspect she believes is not emphasised enough despite calls for an increase in courses on Business German and technical terminology. Students are often motivated to learn German in the vague hope of a job opportunity in a joint venture company and perhaps the opportunity to travel overseas (Steinmetz 1995: 535-536).⁷⁹

In the early 1980s, Bork (1983: 55-56, 156) found that most graduates of German became interpreters and translators in the technology and science fields (working almost exclusively with specialist texts).⁸⁰ Others worked in government departments and research institutions or as tour guides for foreign delegations visiting China or Chinese delegations visiting German-speaking countries. A smaller group became middle school and tertiary level teachers, and only very few became researchers in language and literature.

In the mid to late 1990s the range of career prospects for Chinese graduates of Germanistik was slightly more diverse (Steinmetz 1995: 534-535; Zhao 1999: 595).⁸¹ Seventy percent of all German graduates still obtained employment in the science, technology and industrial sectors in German-Chinese joint ventures and in firms with established trade partnerships with Germany. Circa 25 percent found employment in the tourism sector either as tour guides or in the sales and marketing divisions of travel agencies. Only very few found employment in the university or education sector. The demand for translators and interpreters (two of the main career options open to graduates of German previously) in industry and tourism is now low. Students are usually only successful in obtaining a position in a joint venture enterprise (the most popular career goal of students) if they have both language and other skills pertinent to the job.⁸² Only 4.5 percent of students majoring in Germanistik can imagine a career in this field and so the discipline is often criticised for providing essentially pure foreign language programmes and not qualifying students for later employment (Hess 2000: 7). This trend is expected to continue given that the service sector in China is now being developed (after years of concentration on the production or industrial sector). Employment opportunities for graduates with the traditional Germanistik degrees, focusing primarily on German linguistics and literature, are becoming increasingly rare.

German companies in China use English as the *lingua franca* of business, so employment prospects are not assured, although knowledge of German is a plus at the application stage,

⁷⁹ Cf. Hess 1992a: 411-415; Zimmer 1996: 75.

⁸⁰ Cf. Guangxi 1987: 421; Deichsel 1989: 58-59; Kahn-Ackermann 1991: 35; Ammon 1991a: 506.

⁸¹ Cf. Hess 1992a: 363-365; Liang 1995: 304; Zhao 1998; Hernig 2000: 148-149, 262, 291, 324, 356, 433-434, 457-459.

⁸² Cf. Hess 1992a: 435.

and employees with German skills can communicate better with the German management. According to Zhao (1999: 595).⁸³

Berufschancen bieten jedoch vorwiegend die kleinen bzw. mittelständischen deutschen Unternehmen, in denen im wesentlichen Geschäfte zwischen China und Deutschland abgewickelt werden. Denn die Abhängigkeit der kleinen bzw. mittelständischen Unternehmen von ihrem deutschen Mutterhaus hat zur Folge, daß sie deutschsprechendes Ortspersonal bevorzugen.

English skills are, however, vital and this has to be taken into account when designing the programmes offered. Hess (2000: 7-8) contends many graduates are turned down by employers because they lack English language competencies, so some German departments are attempting a kind of 1.5 foreign language system where English is taught intensively as a second language.

Steinmetz (1995: 537-538) describes the objectives of German in China:

Ziel und Zweck der Deutschausbildung in China [ist] die Herausbildung von Sprachmittlern [...], die in der Lage sind, den angestrebten Technologietransfer aus deutschsprachigen Ländern zu gewährleisten. Die deutsche Sprache solle dabei als notwendiges Werkzeug für den Technologieimport dienen.

Students majoring in German receive a solid grounding in Germanistik, which is based on the *Binnengermanistik* model.⁸⁴ According to Steinmetz (1995: 534) there is a discrepancy between the German programmes offered and the employment opportunities for graduates of these. She (1995: 536-537) contends that the programmes offered should train students in several subjects to accommodate the skills the employment market demands.⁸⁵

Gesucht werden flexible, technisch und fremdsprachlich qualifizierte Arbeitskräfte, denen

- die Schnittstellen zwischen Technik und Betriebsführung bekannt sind,
- die mit den ausländischen Partnern fachlich kompetent und auf internationalem Standard kommunizieren können,
- die Anschluß an die englisch- und deutschsprachige Fachliteratur haben und,
- zu internationaler, effektiver Teamarbeit fähig sind.

Mobile, flexible Arbeitskräfte mit breitem Wissensbasis und der Fähigkeit, sich schnell in neue und hochspezialisierte Aufgaben einzuarbeiten, stehen jedoch im Widerspruch zum traditionellen Ausbildungsziel von lebenslang in eine sichere Arbeitseinheit eingebundenen Arbeitskräften, die sich mit wenig Informationen zufrieden geben und aufgrund nicht vorhandener materieller und aufstiegsorientierter Leistungsanreize und der allgemeinen gesellschaftlichen Anpassung mit Geduld ihre immer gleichmäßige, eng definierter Teilaufgabe in den Grenzen ihrer >>danwei<<⁸⁶ erfüllen.

⁸³ Cf. Liang 1995: 308; Zhao 1998: 688-689.

⁸⁴ Cf. Bork 1983: 55-56, 156.

⁸⁵ Cf. Hess 1992a: 11-12, 1993: 62; Steinmetz 1996: 166-171.

⁸⁶ 'Danwei' is the place of work or *Arbeitseinheit*. In China the danweis take responsibility for the medical insurance, superannuation and allocation of apartments as the social security and housing situation in China is not yet fully developed (Tang 1996: 219-220). According to Hess (1992a: 181-190), the 'danwei' influences both the private and professional life of the Chinese. Hess says that a foreign languages department, for instance, is an almost isolated unit or *danwei* and that this creates difficulties for the development of interdisciplinary programmes.

The perception students have of a particular foreign language in China has played a role in the demand for German in China, specifically in the demand for courses in applied German. German is generally regarded as a difficult language to learn. According to Hess (1992b: 350, 1993: 70), the image the Chinese have of Germany and the German culture is shifting from one of the humanities or cultural side of life in Germany (for instance, the land of Beethoven, Heine, Goethe and Th. Mann) to one of a functional, rationally organised industrial society with a high standard of living with strengths in the field of technological and industrial innovation, particularly since the reunification.⁸⁷

Institutional factors impacting on the teaching and learning of foreign languages, including German, in China include:⁸⁸

- The level at which German programmes are introduced as most students beginning tertiary studies have little or no prior knowledge of German;
- The curriculum requirements;
- The diverse range of target groups German programmes are aimed at or required to be aimed at;
- The lack of suitable textbooks and teaching materials, which are constantly being reworked;
- The fact that little opportunity is provided for learning outside of class;⁸⁹
- The poor working conditions and level of pay of the teaching staff;
- The lack of adequately trained staff, many of whom are primarily Germanisten with little training in didactics or *DaF*;
- The limited resources available in the university libraries (despite large donations of teaching materials and books, magazines, etc.);
- The censoring of some teaching resources, for example, films and videos, if they contain erotic themes or scenes not in line with the party expectations;
- The limited or poorly maintained resources and technological teaching aids;
- The relatively small number of properly integrated courses and programmes (often so-called integrated programmes are simply courses in German and courses in applied subjects studied parallel to each other (Hess 1992b: 350)); and
- The lack of opportunities for students to utilise their German by way of a scholarship to study abroad or an exchange programme.

⁸⁷ Cf. Nayhauss 1993a: 53; Leonard 1994: 691; Steinmetz 1995: 536.

⁸⁸ Cf. Magner 1974: 388-390; Liu 1982: 29-39; Kelz 1982: 81; Bork 1983: 57-60; Welge 1987: 203-204; Hess 1992b: 350-354; Mitschian 1992a, 1992b, 1997, 1999: 53-54; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 592-593; Fluck & Kuhn 1995: 490; Liang 1995: 304; Zimmer 1996: 76; Buch 1998: 457-458; Zhao 1998: 687; Timmermann 1999: 482.

⁸⁹ Many Chinese students live on campus, often with six to eight in one room. As very little study space for students to learn outside of class is provided, they often use the halls, lecture theatres and library to study until central lights turned out at 10 pm and the teaching buildings closed (Bork 1983: 59-60; Hess 1992a: 197-212, 1993: 73-74; Mitschian 1997: 400-402).

Leonard (1994: 692-693) describes the prevalence of the emphasis on grammar, word for word translation, repetition and learning by rote with little individual learning, despite the use of the newer communicative textbooks, such as *Deutsch 2000*.⁹⁰ Additionally, many courses, even at advanced levels, are taught in Chinese. As a result many students are not able to read and analyse subject literature and to discuss it with academics in the field. These so-called traditional (and de facto institutionalised) teaching methods of learning are often cited as the reason for many of the problems faced by foreign language disciplines in China.⁹¹

Despite the numerous changes in the education system under the Japanese influence in the early 20th century, the reforms after WWI based on Dewey's teachings, the Soviet influence in 1950s, the Cultural Revolution, the introduction of educational reform policies in 1976/1977 and the introduction of Western methods and theories (in so far as they complemented the development of socialism) have not led to a complete adaptation of the Western systems nor a complete break with Chinese tradition (Mitschian 1992a; Wei 1999: 220-223). The most important and urgent improvements required are the production of suitable textbooks and teaching materials, taking into account the diversity of teaching and learning situations in China, the training of teachers in linguistics, pedagogy and didactics and changes in the language teaching methods.⁹²

Liang (1999: 200) contends, however, that the different methods of teaching, curricula and textbooks used in China must be understood as being:⁹³

Reflexe auf den Bedarf einer bestimmten Zeit und eng verknüpft mit sozialen, politischen, ideologiegeschichtlichen sowie linguistischen Strömungen. Ihre Vorzüge sollten jedoch überhistorisch gesehen und angeeignet werden.

Mitschian (1997: 398-400, 402-404) and Hess (2000: 8) claim that many publications about German in China focus on and perpetuate the 'traditional' learning culture of China, thus losing sight of the actual dynamic development of the discipline.⁹⁴ According to Mitschian (1997: 394-397, 402-404, 406-407), while there remains a level of dependency on these methods in foreign language learning today, the changes and trends that have occurred internationally in the teaching of foreign languages have also occurred in China but at a later date and usually in a somewhat diluted form. These include the trend towards communicative teaching methods and the clear guidelines given for this in the curricula introduced in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Zimmer 1996: 76).⁹⁵

⁹⁰ Cf. Magner 1974: 388-390; Hieber 1983: 181-183, 189-193; Gu 1987: 35-36; Liang 1999: 201.

⁹¹ Cf. Kleppin 1987: 253; Wie 1999: 212-214.

⁹² Cf. Liu 1982: 33-34, 39; Leonard 1994: 692-693.

⁹³ Cf. Rössler 1984; Ammon 1991a: 506-507; Mitschian 1997: 398-400.

⁹⁴ Cf. Hess 1992a: 1-11, 18-52, 472-573; Mitschian 1997: 398-400, 402-404.

⁹⁵ Cf. Hess 1992a: 295-351, 1992b; Liang 1995: 231.

The linguistic differences between Chinese and German are another important factor. Zhu and Best (1991: 169-170) describe how Chinese students have difficulty with the sentence structure of German, such as the placement of the verb second or at the end of relative clauses, because of the completely different language systems. These linguistic differences cause problems both in the oral use and in the written use of German.⁹⁶

In addition, the complex multilingual situation in China, with its 142 languages and no standard Chinese 'mother tongue' causes further difficulties when teaching foreign languages in China (Coulmas 1991b: 5; Hieber 1983: 193).

Social and cultural factors also appear to impact on the teaching and learning of foreign languages, including German, in China and often mean that the foreign staff have to adapt their teaching methods to the Chinese context.⁹⁷ Confucian social structure and communist political ideology pervade the Chinese education system, according to Welge (1988: 11), and impact on the interpretation and reception of German literature. Chinese society is in a complex transitional process due to the recent liberalisation and modernisation policies and rapid economic development. The economic and social changes have led to changes in the social values system and patterns of thought as well as the position and function of the individual (Liang 1995: 231, 1996: 163). The effects of this complex system of cultural, traditional values and methods and the recent changes on the teaching of German include the fact that Chinese students often add a personal opinion or a moral judgement to a report or description of a text (Wie 1999: 222-223).⁹⁸

Culturally determined differences between native German speakers and Chinese occur most often in greetings, farewells, reaction to praise, while eating, and when thanking people (Günthner 1989: 433).⁹⁹

So empfinden Deutsche das Verhalten vieler Chinesen, die gleich zu Beginn der Bekanntschaft nach Familienstand, Anzahl der Kinder oder gar Höhe des Verdienstes fragen, als unangemessen. Für Chinesen bedeutet dieses Erfragen persönlicher Hintergründe jedoch den Aufbau einer freundlichen, vertrauten Atmosphäre, und somit eine notwendige Voraussetzung für Gespräche über andere Themenkomplexe.

The typical Chinese greeting of "chi guo fan le ma?" or "Have you eaten?" is one such example that often leads to intercultural misunderstandings due to the differing sociocultural backgrounds of the Chinese and the native speakers of German (Liang 1992: 65-66).

⁹⁶ Cf. Liu 1982: 29-39, 1992: 203-214; Zhang 1985: 168; Möhn 1985; Kleppin 1987: 254; Welge 1987: 194-203; Gu 1987: 38; Wang 1988; Zhu & Best 1991; Wei 1992: 322-324, 1996; Zhang 1992: 351-353; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 591; Han 1996; Kong 1996; Fluck 1996: 241-260; Jia 1999; Wie 1999: 210-212; Radlmayr 1999; Chan Yin Fung 2001.

⁹⁷ Cf. Bork 1983: 1-4, 156-160; Günthner & Rothenhäusler 1986; Günthner 1988: 4, 1989; Zhang 1991: 100; Wei 1992; Zhang 1992; Mitschian 1992a, 1992b, 1999; Fluck 1994: 654, 659-660; Miklitz 1996; Beneke 2000.

⁹⁸ Cf. Radlmayr 1999: 95-108.

⁹⁹ Cf. He *et al.* 1987; Günthner & Rothenhäusler 1986; Günthner 1988: 5-8, 1989: 436; Liang 1992: 65-66, 1996: 145-148; Wei 1992: 327-328.

There are distinct differences in the use of language between the native speakers of German and the Chinese. For instance, a German 'no' means exactly that as opposed to the Chinese way of only indirectly saying 'no' (Wei 1992: 327-328). Günthner (1989: 436) describes the directness of native speakers of German compared with the Chinese way of beginning with a more general discussion and then gradually moving to the matter at hand in order to maintain politeness and the harmony in the group:¹⁰⁰

Für chinesische InteraktionsteilnehmerInnen (insbesondere für ältere und traditionsbewußte ChinesInnen) stellt das konfuzianische Ideal der *Harmonie* noch heute ein wichtiges Gebot (vielleicht sogar *das* wichtigste in zwischenmenschlichen Interaktionen) dar.

The hesitation of many Chinese students to criticise others and the conformity to ritual behavioural patterns (for example, politeness is absolute in China) can lead to the impression that Chinese find it difficult to think critically and, therefore, this has consequences for the critical analysis of academic texts (Liang 1992: 73-74).

To avoid embarrassing situations and intercultural misunderstandings, Wei (1992: 329-330) suggests that German programmes should (a) teach *Landeskunde* (LK) (area studies) in Chinese from semester one onwards (because students do not understand enough German at this stage), and (b) teach about the cultural differences that words have.¹⁰¹ Tang (1996) describes examples of LK topics, which need to be and are taught to Chinese students, particularly those intending to study in German-speaking countries, using *Praxis Deutsch*. These include topics such as invitations, visiting people, taking gifts, respecting the private sphere of Germans, the treatment of foreigners in the German-speaking countries, the different economic systems, and visiting a trade fair in Germany. Liang (1996: 162) says that:¹⁰²

für die interkulturelle Kommunikation muß der Sensibilisierungsprozeß für das Fremde und das Eigene verstärkt durch die Ausbildung und Vermittlung von elementaren Grundregeln konkretisiert werden, die als Ergebnisse kulturell und gesellschaftlich spezifischer Entwicklungen zu betrachten sind und konkrete Verhaltens- und Handlungsmuster sowie ihre sprachlichen Realisierungen anleiten.

II.1.4 Germanistik and Innovative Developments in the Field of German Studies.

II.1.4.1 The development of the discipline.

Germanistik in China developed relatively late in comparison to the discipline in Japan and Korea. According to Zhu (1987: 242), the Chinese philosopher and revolutionary author, Lu Xun (1881 to 1936), was the first to draw the attention of the Chinese public to German

¹⁰⁰ Cf. Günthner & Rothenhäusler 1986; Liang 1992: 68-76, 79-83, 1996: 144, 149-151; Fluck 1994: 654; Wie 1999: 214-220; 223-228.

¹⁰¹ Cf. Kleppin 1987: 257; Liang 1992: 67.

¹⁰² Cf. Gu 1987: 39.

literature in 1907 in an essay in which he referred to Nietzsche, Arndt and Körner.¹⁰³ The growing influence of European powers and the Japanese on China since 1840 and the imminent national crisis at the time had caused China's intelligentsia to question traditional Confucian thinking and to turn towards Western thinking. Topics such as individuality and the oppression by the nation or society found in the works of these writers appealed to the Chinese. The first translation of German literature into Chinese, the romantic *Märchen Undine* by Fouqué, appeared in 1913. Two years later the Grimm brothers' *Märchen* were published in translation. One of the first works to be introduced at the beginning of the 1920s was Goethe's *Die Leiden des jungen Werthers*. *Clavigo*, *Faust* and *Egmont* followed. Schiller's dramas and works by Lessing and Th. Storm were introduced to the Chinese public in the 1930s (Leonard 1994: 690).

The Germanistik discipline itself began to develop when Cai Yuanpei (1868 to 1940) (who had studied in Germany and who became Vice-Chancellor of Peking University in 1919) introduced German as an independent major subject alongside English, French and Russian at Peking University in 1919, bringing in German literary experts to teach. Most important of these was Professor Oelke who taught his students Gothic and Old High German and introduced the study of Lessing's works. The German programme was modelled on the traditional German model. Academic research and teaching, however, was not systematic nor were the numbers who studied German at Peking substantial and the discipline did not expand much during this time. This first department of German was later abolished by Cai's replacement. However, the early death of Germanistik was prevented by the fact that many Chinese graduates, the majority of who were scientists and medical personnel, went to Germany to obtain their PhDs. Feng Zhi was one of the very few Germanisten to study in Germany at this time, and he translated Heine's *Harzreise* and poetry by Goethe, Heine and Rilke (Zhang 1985: 169-170; Hernig 2000: 130-131). After their return, these academics played a major role (despite the small number) in the academic life and development of China. There were only very few universities where they could teach German as a second or even third foreign language, so they translated a significant amount of German literature into Chinese (Zhu 1987: 242).¹⁰⁴

Auswahl und Rezeption waren wiederum durch die landesweit gärende Auflehnung gegen die feudalen Verhältnisse und den Drang nach Emanzipation der Persönlichkeit bedingt.

Guo Moruo translated Goethe's *Die Leiden des jungen Werther* in 1922 and Goethe's *Faust* in the 1930s. *Die Leiden des jungen Werther* and Storm's *Immensee* (translated by Ba Jin) were popular as young academics saw in these works a protest against the lack of freedom in choosing a partner, for instance, one problem which occupied many at that time (Zhang 1985: 169-170; Zhu 1987: 242-243). Expressionism also found popularity in China at this

¹⁰³ Cf. Zhang 1985: 169; Han 1990: 151-152.

¹⁰⁴ Cf. Han 1990: 152-153; Yang 1991: 384-387; Zhu 1992: 127; Leonard 1994: 690.

time,¹⁰⁵ particularly as the Communist party brought hope of change to the harmonious, but monotone art scene. Despite little research and few academic works, the Chinese Germanistik discipline experienced its first heyday during this period (Zhu 1987: 243; Yang 1991: 384-387).

China mobilised as a nation against Japanese aggression between 1937 and 1945. This resulted in the development of the discipline being somewhat interrupted. However, critical and antifascist works, such as *Wallenstein*, *Minna von Barnhelm*, Remarque's *Im Westen nichts Neues*, Renn's *Krieg*, F. Wolf's *Professor Mamlock* and *Das Trojanische Pferd*, and Heine's lyrics (such as *Deutschland – ein Wintermärchen*) became popular during this period (Zhu 1987: 243).¹⁰⁶

After WWII and the founding of the People's Republic relations between the GDR and China developed (Bork 1983: 7). German as an independent subject at the tertiary level (primarily at specialised foreign language universities similar to those in the Soviet Union) was again offered after the 1949 founding of the People's Republic.¹⁰⁷ Peking Foreign Languages College was the first to reintroduce German language as a major subject (Zhu 1987: 243).¹⁰⁸

Es lag ein dringender Grund vor: die zu erwartende rasche Entwicklung der Zusammenarbeit zwischen China und der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik. Unser Land brauchte vor allem Diplomaten und Multiplikatoren.

At that time the German department at Peking Foreign Languages College was a small department of 14 students who had studied English, Romance languages, Law or Philosophy and German as a second foreign language before the liberation. There were no real set courses. The students learned the German grammar from a Berlitz workbook and after several months were expected to be able to translate difficult texts from the communist manifesto into Chinese and German.

In 1952 German was also introduced as a major subject at Peking and Nanking Universities and in 1956 at the Shanghai Foreign Languages College.¹⁰⁹ The task of the German departments was not Germanistik research, but rather the training of interpreters and translators using the traditional grammar translation method.¹¹⁰ East German academics assisted in teaching a new generation of academics new methodologies and German language skills from 1955 to 1963, and students were sent to study in the GDR (Bork 1983: 7; Hess 2000: 3).¹¹¹ Subjects such as literary history, lexicology and stylistics were introduced, and since 1956 students have had to present a thesis or written piece of work on a literary or linguistic topic to complete their degree (Zhu 1987: 243).

¹⁰⁵ Cf. Huang 1991: 337.

¹⁰⁶ Cf. Zhang 1985: 170; Bieg 1986: 333.

¹⁰⁷ Cf. Hess 1992a: 373; Hernig 2000: 132-133.

¹⁰⁸ Cf. Han 1990: 153.

¹⁰⁹ Cf. Hernig 2000: 131-132.

¹¹⁰ Cf. Ni 1991: 209.

¹¹¹ Cf. Bieg 1986: 335.

Many important works of German literature (mainly GDR literature) were translated into Chinese during the 1950s, including Th. and H. Mann, Seghers, Bredel, Brecht, F. Wolf, Zweig, Heym, Weiskopf, Strittmatter, Feuchtwanger, Hermlin and Fühmann (Zhu 1987: 243, 1992: 128; Leonard 1994: 690). The close cultural relations between the GDR and China at that time were a determinant in the availability and popularity of the socialist literature. Modern West German authors, however, with the exception of Böll, Borchert and Lenz, were hardly known. Böll's works (such as *Der Mann mit den Messern*, *Und sagte kein einziges Wort* and *Lohengrüns Tod*) were allowed as literary texts because they were printed in the Soviet Union. Such authors are now on virtually every reading list for Germanistik students and are found in Chinese translation (Bork 1983: 51-54; Han 1990: 154).¹¹²

Leonard (1994: 690) traces a strict chronological order in the introduction of German literature into China, from the Storm and Stress period through the Classical, Romantic, *Biedermeier* and Realism periods to Naturalism. From the founding of the Republic through to the Cultural Revolution (1949–1964), the works of Seghers and Brecht were popular. Translations of works by the classical authors, Goethe, Schiller, Heine and Kleist, however, continued to be produced.¹¹³ Schiller and Heine were afforded a place of honour and China celebrated the 150th anniversary of Schiller's death in 1955 and the 100th anniversary of Heine's death in 1956. As part of the festivities, translations of *Die Räuber*, *Fiesco*, *Kabale und Liebe* and *Die Jungfrau von Orleans* were produced as was a new edition of *Wallenstein* (Zhang 1985: 171). German literature was regarded, however, by many Chinese as too serious, too abstract and philosophical and was consequently not as popular as French, Russian, Japanese or American literature (Nerlich and Zhou 1993: 55-63).¹¹⁴

Germanistik research, however, continued to lag behind the translation of literature, perhaps because in general the language skills of the university lecturers are better than their Germanistik training (Han 1990: 162). Despite this some important research works were produced at the time and included a collection of short stories from German literature compiled by a collective of authors under the leadership of Professor Feng Zhi and Professor Hans Marnette from the GDR and a Chinese-German Dictionary with over 50 000 entries. The first German literary history in Chinese was produced by the German department at Peking University in 1959. This was a significant work because it was the first to collate and publish the research of Chinese Germanisten (Zhang 1985: 172-173).

The campaign against right wing political elements in 1957 again interrupted the development of the discipline, and after China's 1959 rift with the Soviet Union, there was little discernable influence of East German literature on the Germanistik discipline (Bauer

¹¹² Cf. Zhou 1996: 165.

¹¹³ Cf. Zhang 1985: 179-183.

¹¹⁴ Cf. Huang 1991; Zhu 1992: 129.

1982: x). From 1962 to 1963 all academic disciplines were expected to aim at becoming as good as the international level. Ambitious plans were mapped out by the Germanisten. Translations of important works by Paul, Behaghel, Lukás and others were to be produced. Every teacher was to specialise in a specific field of Germanistik and produce academic publications in this field (Zhu 1987: 244; Han 1990: 154-155). However, these plans had hardly been made when the movement for socialist education began in 1964. Foreign literature was branded as revisionist or decadent, and subsequently banned. Teaching materials for the Germanistik discipline were reduced to Chinese publications translated into German. In the Worker-Peasant-Soldier schools established in the early 1970s, German was taught only so students could espouse the ideals of Mao. German language literature, history or *LK* was not taught (Han 1990: 156-157).

During the Cultural Revolution translation of German literary works stopped and only those works regarded as harmless, such as Grimms' *Märchen* and Eichendorffs *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts*, were produced in new editions. Only after the revolution ended in 1976 did the Chinese officially begin to translate German literary works again. Kafka, Zweig, Böll, Plenzdorf and Ch. Wolf became especially popular (Leonard 1994: 690-691). Many had actually continued the translation work illegally during the revolution.¹¹⁵ According to Zhang (1985: 175-176), evidence of this is the number of translated works that appeared shortly after the end of the Cultural Revolution. For example, Eckermann's *Gespräche mit Goethe*, Heine's *Laokoon, Deutschland – eine Wintermärchen*, (translated by Feng Zhi during his hard labour on farms in the countryside) and *Die Romantische Schule*, and Zweig's *Vier Novellen*. Many translations were taken from the Japanese or English versions (Bauer 1982: xiii).

After the Cultural Revolution ended, there was a great hunger and enthusiasm for new literature and new perspectives (Sun 1992: 285-286; Zhu 1992: 128-129). In a relatively short time many great literary works were translated into Chinese, including not only the classics but also many modern literary works that were particularly liked by the young students, such as works by Kafka, Sartre and Camus. Some German literature became very popular because the subject matter was very close to what the Chinese had experienced. For instance, Zweig's *Joseph Fouché*, which had once been banned because it was considered decadent (Zhang 1991: 104–111). After ten years of revolution many Chinese recognised the complexity and contradictory nature of humanity. They showed a great interest in the inner contradictions of man in the modern era, which was better revealed in modern works as opposed to the realism works from the 19th century (Sun 1992: 285):

Die Vereinsamung, die Distanz gegen die Außenwelt, die Ohnmacht gegenüber dem Schicksal, die Depression, die Fassungslosigkeit und Ausweglosigkeit, - all das, was den Helden der Moderne eigen ist, findet bei den jungen chinesischen Lesern Verständnis und Mitgefühl.

¹¹⁵ Cf. Bauer 1982: xii; Zhang 1985: 175-176.

Rapid expansion and diversification of the discipline in China began in 1976. For the first time Chinese German teachers and Germanisten could research and teach German language, literature and history and aspects of the social development of the German-speaking countries relatively uninfluenced by state propaganda. However, there were no clear curricula and the political situation remained relatively uncertain. There were neither enough teachers nor books and other teaching materials, and even today one notices that some of the older lecturers (those that had to interrupt their studies during the revolution) cannot speak German well and or have significant gaps in their knowledge of German literature (Bork 1983: 51-54).

The following fifteen years were spent building up and consolidating the discipline nationally. A decisive point was the introduction of the new Tertiary Education Act in 1977, which reinstated the national university entrance examination. Priorities were the training and further education of teachers, the development of curricula and the production of textbooks (Hess 1993: 60, 2000: 3, 5-6). These developments were supported by an increasing number of partnerships between German and Chinese institutions and organisations.¹¹⁶ Diplomatic relations between the FRG and China had resumed in 1972, as did the cultural and academic exchange of students and academics, evidence of a greater change in the foreign policies of China (Bork 1983: 8). The diverse cultural exchange led to communicative methods being increasingly utilised in China, a reorientation for Chinese teaching staff (Ni 1991: 211-212; Liang 1999: 200-202).¹¹⁷

A large number of textbooks and technical dictionaries were produced by individual staff to keep abreast of the increasing demand for German courses during this period, often in an ad hoc manner and without the necessary knowledge of didactics or educational methodologies. The production of these publications is evidence of an attempt to adapt to the needs of the different target groups (Sui 1988: 112).¹¹⁸ Some such as professors, Ni Jenfu and Liang Min have, however, combined *DaF* didactics with characteristics specific to the Chinese situation, taking into account the sociopolitical situation of the country and at the same time leaving room for flexibility and adaptability when developing degree programmes (Hess 2000: 6). The development of the new curricula in the late 1980s was a further attempt to rationalise and standardise the objectives of German programmes in China and these now form the basis of all new textbooks produced, for example *Grundstudium Deutsch* and *Ziele*.¹¹⁹

¹¹⁶ Cf. Zhang 1985: 184-185; Miklitz 1988: 90; Hernig 2000: 133-137.

¹¹⁷ Cf. Bieg 1986: 336; Han 1990: 157; Zhao 1998: 689.

¹¹⁸ Cf. Zhang 1985: 177; Hess 1993: 60; Liang 1999: 202; Hernig 2000.

¹¹⁹ Cf. Liang 1999: 204-206.

In 1979 a cultural agreement, the primary focus of which was the exchange of students and academics, was signed between FRG and China. After this the exchange programme increased dramatically supported by organisations such as the *Alexander-von-Humboldt-Stiftung*, the *Max-Planck-Gesellschaft*, the *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD)*, the *Goethe-Institut* and Academia Sinica.¹²⁰ At first the majority of those participating were Germanisten due to the great demand for qualified teaching staff in the new educational institutions (Bork 1983: 10). However, increasingly the majority of those participating in such exchanges are from the technical and scientific disciplines (such as mechanical engineering and aeronautics). In 1979 the *Goethe-Institut* in Peking was also established. During this period the Tongji University again became a centre for German-Chinese cooperation in the scientific, technological and cultural fields (Huang 1996: 66-67; Hess 2000: 3).¹²¹ Partnerships between German and Chinese universities and between states and provinces in the two countries (for example, between Baden-Württemberg and the Liaoning province) were also encouraged and the numbers of these increased. Other such bilateral relations during this period included visits to China by German politicians and the establishment of the Consulate General of the FRG in Shanghai and the Chinese Consulate General in Hamburg (Bork 1983: 10-14).¹²²

Germanistik research in China in the past focused primarily on translation theory and practice, the production of technical dictionaries and teaching materials as well as the practical aspects of the discipline. Research into linguistics topics, scientific or technical terminology, contrastive studies between Chinese and German and literary topics, for instance, was a significant development during the 1980s (Sui 1988: 111-112; Hess 2000: 8-9).¹²³ Comparative research into the question of the influence of German authors and philosophers in China became and continues to be central within the discipline in China.

Research and teaching at the universities is in a sense a barometer of the context of the entire discipline in China. The changes in the political and economic situation in China have led to an increase in the cultural and academic exchange between the discipline in China and in the German-speaking countries. Academic publications have also increased dramatically (Zhang 1985: 177-179). Since 1977, for instance, there have been more than one thousand journals or magazines published, in which mainly articles or translations of foreign literature have appeared as compared with the 1950s and 1960s when there was only one journal, which published such research, and which was forced to stop publication when the Cultural Revolution began. Academics, therefore, have increasing possibilities to publish their academic works in journals such as *Deutsch Lernen* or *Lehre und Forschung*

¹²⁰ The Academia Sinica is the Chinese academy of the scholarly disciplines based in Peking.

¹²¹ Cf. Liang 1995: 302.

¹²² Cf. Hess 1992a: 362-363.

¹²³ Cf. Kelz 1982: 78-79; Zhang 1985: 177-179; Zhu 1987: 245; Wang 1988: 76; Hernig 2000: 149-156, 300-304, 366-369, 337-342.

der Fremdsprache (published by the Shanghai Foreign Languages Institute).¹²⁴ However, difficulties in publishing books and academic journals remain as the costs involved in publishing a Germanistik academic journal, for instance, are high and in comparison with literary translations, research works have a smaller audience (Zhu 1987: 245; Han 1990: 163).

The Masters theses at Tongji University are an indication of the range of topics covered by academic research in China and include problems of morphology, lexicology, syntax and tests as well as questions of German–Chinese translation and computer linguistics. All of these are written in German and are concerned with the applied aspects of the discipline, particularly linguistics and translation and technical language.¹²⁵ Less emphasis, however, has been placed on foreign language research than on translation, a reflection perhaps of the weak and relatively late development of pedagogy as an academic discipline in China (Ni 1991: 209). Hess (2000: 9) contends that the ahistorical Intercultural German Studies is criticised by many Chinese Germanisten because they tend to concentrate on the given facts (for example, in *LK* courses) rather than theoretical concepts.¹²⁶ Many *LK* topics are no longer taboo subjects or censured but few Chinese Germanisten have published research in the *DaF* field. Sui (1988: 113) calls for wider research within the discipline.¹²⁷

At most universities and foreign language colleges literature is a key area of the study of German. Texts from the Enlightenment through to the present are used. Some literary history courses even include the Old High German *Hildebrandslied*. Chinese tend to read German literature, which has some relevance to the political and social situation that they understand or literature that deals with topics their own literature deals with.¹²⁸ There was a high level of interest in postwar German literature, such as *Trümmerliteratur*, amongst the generation growing up during and immediately after the Cultural Revolution, partially due to the fact that students expected to find practical examples or advice for the ‘four modernisations’ phase of China’s development (Denkler 1987: 377-378).¹²⁹

Zhang (1985: 177-178) believes that the interest in and research on literary topics is diversifying and increasing. Students can now attend lectures on Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, Heine, Brecht, 18th, 19th and 20th century literature, East German literature, the literature of the German-speaking countries, the German lyric and literary criticism amongst other topics. The literary topics covered by Master’s and PhD theses are increasingly diverse and an indication of the diversity of the discipline in China: the *Trümmerliteratur* in the postwar period, Brecht’s dramas, the early works of Böll, Hesse and his novel *Unterm Rad*, psychoanalysis in the novel *Ungeduld des Herzens* by Stefan Zweig and Ch. Wolf and her

¹²⁴ Cf. Ni 1991: 211-214.

¹²⁵ Cf. Fluck 1984: 168-170.

¹²⁶ Cf. Hess 1992a: 32-33, 35-36.

¹²⁷ Cf. Miklitz 1988: 91.

¹²⁸ Cf. Zhang 1992: 353-360.

¹²⁹ Cf. Nayhauss 1993a: 53; Leonard 1994: 691.

novel *Der geteilte Himmel*. Zhu (1992: 130-132) believes that a standard canon no longer exists within the Chinese discipline, particularly as the tastes of the Chinese public have changed with the changes in the fundamental characteristics of Chinese society. The preference for particular literary epochs and works depends on the type of education and the age of the lecturers. In general, the older prefer the classical and romantic eras and works while the younger prefer modern literature (Bork 1983: 52-54).

The increasing interest in German literature is also reflected in the number of conferences Chinese Germanisten are attending and or hosting. A high point in the history of Chinese Germanistik was the 1986 Germanistik conference in Peking, which fifteen highly regarded professors from Germany attended (Zhu 1987: 246). In total there were 54 contributions on linguistic, literary topics, methodological-didactical questions, *LK* and translation issues. Other conferences at which the discipline has been able to showcase itself include the Schiller conference in 1985, the 1985 *IVG* conference (which Chinese Germanisten attended for the first time), the 1990 Chinese-Japanese Germanistik Conference in Beijing, and the first international conference on *DaF* in China, *Deutsch als Fach- und Fremdsprache in Ostasian*, in 1994.¹³⁰

The training of German teachers is one major difficulty the discipline has had to face during the past two decades. According to Han (1990: 161-162), there are four generations of Germanisten in China:

- The older generation, who graduated in the 1950s and early 1960s and who form the majority of the teaching staff today.¹³¹ They lack a comprehensive background in Germanistik because many were educated solely in China and until a few years ago had never been to Germany. Also these staff taught German language courses for years and had no opportunity during that period to specialise and research in any particular aspect of Germanistik;
- The middle generation who could not finish their studies during the Cultural Revolution and consequently do not have the necessary skills or qualifications to be a university lecturer despite having attempted to make up for their lack of training;
- The younger generation who completed their studies during or after the revolution. Many have travelled to Germany and most teach the language courses for beginners. They too lack the academic training and specific knowledge necessary to research any particular aspect of Germanistik; and
- The academic youth or those who have graduated with a Masters in China or in German-speaking countries in recent years and have a relatively solid grounding in language and subject specific knowledge.

¹³⁰ Cf. Zhang 1984: 184; Han 1990: 160-161; Koshina 1997: 8.

¹³¹ Cf. Hess 2000: 7.

There are currently an estimated 300 permanent assistants, lecturers and professors teaching Germanistik as a major and approximately a further 220 staff at the technical colleges and universities (Hess 2000: 6). However, two significant problems face the discipline. Over half of the staff are over fifty years of age and many young academics are seeking employment in other fields because teaching as a profession is regarded as unattractive and poorly paid. The lack of good quality training has also led to difficulties in developing and implementing new programmes despite the opportunities for further education and training both in China (through the *Goethe-Institut*, the *DAAD* and partnerships with German universities) and in the German-speaking countries (Timmermann 1999: 482).¹³² Hess (2000: 7) contends that many of the graduates undertaking a PhD in Germany will only return to teach if the working conditions, level of pay and other factors are improved at the Chinese universities.¹³³

The development of German programmes in China is supported and regulated by three institutions (Zhu 1987: 244; Han 1990: 159-160). A commission was established in 1981 by the government to audit the academic qualifications of those departments and institutes that teach and research foreign languages and literatures. This commission decides by secret vote, which institutions and professors are entitled to award masters and doctoral degrees. Since 1979 a working group of the Ministry of Education, the *Chinesische Lehrwerkkommission (DaF)*, has been responsible for auditing and ratifying the textbooks used by departments to teach German at the tertiary level. During the past few years numerous textbooks have been produced and ratified, including textbooks on German for scientists and engineers, textbooks with literary texts and translation textbooks. In 1982 the *Chinesischer Germanistenverband* was established, the membership of which includes German departments at universities and colleges and individual Germanisten outside the tertiary system.¹³⁴ The aim of the association is to work towards the qualitative improvement of the discipline, to support Germanistik research and to develop cooperation with the discipline in other countries. The association also organises an annual conference. Shortly afterwards the *Gesellschaft zur Forschung der deutschsprachigen Literatur* was founded with Feng Zhi as its president (Zhang 1985: 183).¹³⁵

Other academic associations established since the beginning of the 1980s include the *Chinesische Fachverband für deutsche Literatur*, the *Chinesische Sprachwissenschaftlerverband für chinesisch-deutsche sprachkontrastive Forschung* and the *Chinesische Literaturübersetzungsverband*. A *Fremdsprachendidaktik-Verband (DaF Forschung)* is also planned (Ni 1991: 212-213). A number of research institutions have been established, including the Research Institute for Foreign Literature at Nanking University and the Research Centre for Cultural Exchange between China and Germany at the Foreign

¹³² Cf. Adler *et al.* 1978; Hess 1992a: 380-388; Liang 1999: 202.

¹³³ Cf. Hernig 2000: 270-271.

¹³⁴ Cf. Zhang 1985: 184.

¹³⁵ Cf. Hernig 2000: 136-137.

Language College Chongqin. The establishment of these associations and research institutions, along with the diverse cultural and academic exchange with German-speaking countries, has added to the development and diversity of Germanistik in China (Ni 1991: 212-214).

Ammon (1991: 503) says that the rapid development and the fact that China is one of the few countries where there has been increasing interest in German in recent years (even before the euphoria associated with the reunification) must be considered in the context of the dramatic decrease in German language learning in China during the Cultural Revolution, qualitatively as well as quantitatively. The increases in the learning and teaching of German during the 1980s were partially an attempt to regain the niveau and student numbers of earlier years and partially due to the attempts of the new government to liberalise and modernise the economy. While the situation for the discipline in China is relatively positive (in comparison to that in Japan and Korea), Timmermann (1999: 481) says German was used primarily as an instrument of the government's developmental policies, and this could now have consequences for the discipline given that many contacts between China and German-speaking countries are on a private sector basis.¹³⁶

Da Kooperation und Austausch vornehmlich auf staatlicher Ebene abliefen, ging damit eine intensive Förderung der deutschen Sprache in China einher. Die pragmatische Einbindung hat zu einer Effektivierung des Sprachunterrichts, zu einer Diversifizierung der Germanistik und zu einer sicheren Stellung des Deutschen im Wissenschafts- und Technologie-Austausch geführt.

The discipline has been faced with a new structural crisis since the end of the 1980s because there are too few workplaces for its graduates. Since the system of government assigned positions has been abolished, universities now have a kind of job market or information display to enable students to make the first step towards obtaining employment.¹³⁷ This has led to increased competition between graduates and disciplines. In addition, German departments have been faced by questions of efficiency and costs in the process of tertiary reform. Not surprisingly students are taking a more pragmatic and materialistic approach to their further studies because of these developments (Timmermann 1999: 483). Technical colleges and universities (of which Tongji University is still number one¹³⁸) appear to be weathering or adapting to the crisis more successfully through further development of the original functional mode of German-Chinese cooperation. Pure Germanistik departments have been hit the hardest, particularly those outside the few elite universities and have instigated numerous reform projects that combine *DaF* with career relevant skills or disciplines (Hess 2000: 3).¹³⁹

¹³⁶ Cf. Hess 1996: 33f.

¹³⁷ Buch (1998: 457-459) points out that Chinese students need to be taught the skills to seek employment.

¹³⁸ Cf. Huang 1996: 66-67.

¹³⁹ Cf. Timmermann 1999: 483.

II.1.4.2 Germanistik versus German as a first or second foreign language.

German programmes in China are diverse in nature and are offered at a wide range of tertiary institutions, including foreign language and technical colleges, technical universities for aeronautics, earth sciences and mechanical engineering, and German institutes.¹⁴⁰ The greatest demand for German (as a foreign language rather than Germanistik) is at the technical and scientific institutions. The ratio between those studying German as a major and those studying German as a second foreign language is one to six according to Zhang (1985: 176).¹⁴¹

In 1996 there were 3380 undergraduate level students of German as a first foreign language, 7453 undergraduate students of German as a second foreign language, 450 students studying German as a first foreign language at Master's level, 2317 studying German as a second foreign language at Master's level, 796 learning German through intensive courses and 757 learning German in other courses at the circa 120 tertiary institutions that offered German programmes (Zimmer 1996: 76-78).¹⁴² The relatively high number of students studying German as a foreign language (16 460 in comparison to the circa 1200 studying Germanistik as a major) is due to several factors, such as a second foreign language being compulsory for many Master's level students. In addition, at Tongji University, for instance, German is the compulsory first foreign language for circa 1000 students per semester.

As with English, the question of whether or not to study German is primarily associated with industrial modernisation, so students are motivated to study the language only if it is going to help them obtain employment, particularly in one of the increasing number of joint venture companies (Leonard 1994: 691).¹⁴³ According to Hess (1996: 29-31, 33-36, 2000: 3, 9), because of the historical functionality of German in China (i.e. the use of German as an instrument of importing and assimilating scientific and technical know-how), there is no clear-cut division between *DaF* and Germanistik programmes offered in China.¹⁴⁴ German in China has always been fairly applied as opposed to being a traditional *Bildungsfach* as in other countries, such as Japan and Korea, and this is reflected in the relations between China and the German-speaking countries. Germanistik as such has played a secondary role because of the unique political situation in the country (Hess 2000: 2):

Die Geisteswissenschaften selbst waren jedoch zu keiner Zeit Gegenstand des eigentlichen Deutschstudiums, das stets pragmatisch und propädeutisch ausgerichtet blieb.

¹⁴⁰ Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 48-49; Sui 1988: 109; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 591; Fluck *et al.* 1996: 9.

¹⁴¹ Cf. Ni 1991: 209; Hess 1992a: 375-377; Zimmer 1996: 75.

¹⁴² Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 48-49.

¹⁴³ Cf. Nayhauss 1993a: 53.

¹⁴⁴ Cf. Neuner 1986; Coulmas 1991b; Hess 1992a: 352-358, 367, 373, 1992b; Hernig 2000: 138.

German programmes offered in China can be divided into five main areas:¹⁴⁵

- German(istik) as a major at the undergraduate level;
- Master's programmes in German;
- German as a first or second (or even third) foreign language;
- German preparatory or intensive courses; and
- German language courses for the wider public.

German(istik) as a major for the four-year Bachelor's degree programme is offered at some 20 colleges, universities and institutes, including Beijing University, Nanjing University, Fudan University Shanghai, University of Hangzhou, Tongji University Shanghai, University of Wuhan, Sun Yatsen University in Kanton, East China Education College in Shanghai, Foreign Languages Colleges Beijing I and II, Foreign Languages Colleges in Chongqing, Shanghai, Xi'an, Tientsin, and Kanton, Language Institute Beijing, Foreign Trade Institute Beijing, Medical College Wuhan, Institute for International Politics in Beijing and the Institute for Mechanical Engineering in Shanghai.¹⁴⁶ Most of these are key universities under state control.

There are an estimated 1200 students currently majoring in Germanistik in China (with about 300 new enrolments annually),¹⁴⁷ and circa 375 teaching staff and about 30 (*DAAD* and *freie* or 'freelance') *LektorInnen* from German-speaking countries.¹⁴⁸ There are also a number of short term or guest lecturers from German-speaking countries visiting on partner exchanges between the respective institutions.¹⁴⁹

The graduates of these universities work mainly in research, foreign affairs and in universities as lecturers or researchers. Normally only five percent of graduates continue onto graduate level study (Hess 2000: 4). Because of this, these programmes focus on teaching students to be translators, interpreters, teachers, academics and experts in the area of German language. The *Goethe-Institut* describes Germanistik in China as being "eine Kombination von DaF-Unterricht, Uebersetzer- und Dolmetscherausbildung mit wissenschaftlichem Germanistikstudium" (<http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/china/degerm1.htm> (22 January 2000)). The outline of the German programme at Quangdong Foreign Studies University in Quangzhou reflects this emphasis and the career opportunities for its graduates:¹⁵⁰

¹⁴⁵ Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 49, 54-57; Guangxi 1987: 421-423; Kleppin 1987: 252-253; Wang 1988: 76; Han 1990: 157-159; Ni 1991: 209; Hess 1992a: 373-373, 390-391, 1993: 65-68, 2000 3-4; Huang 1996: 67; Steinmetz 1996: 164-166.

¹⁴⁶ Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 49-50; Sui 1988: 111; Jia 1992: 111; Steinmetz 1995: 533-534; Huang 1996: 68; Embassy of Federal Republic of Germany, Beijing, *Personal correspondence*, 8 June 1998; Hernig 2000; <http://www.bfsu.edu.cn/english/univ/yxs7/dyx.htm> (22 January 2000).

¹⁴⁷ Some estimates suggest that this figure could be as high as 1600 (Hernig 2000: 137; <http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/china/degerm1.htm> (22 January 2000)).

¹⁴⁸ Zimmer (1996: 92) puts this figure at 28 *DAAD* and 15 to 20 *freie LektorInnen*.

¹⁴⁹ Cf. Jia 1992: 111; Embassy of Federal Republic of Germany, Beijing, *Personal correspondence*, 8 June 1998; Hess 2000: 4.

¹⁵⁰ Cf. <http://www.gdufs.edu.cn/english/e21-f2.htm> (2 October 2000).

Der Studiengang dient dazu, hochrangige Fachkräfte auszubilden, die moralisch, fachlich und körperlich allseitig entwickelt sind, die über eine solide Grundlage für die deutsche Sprache verfügen und praktische Fähigkeiten im Hören, Sprechen, Lesen, Schreiben und Übersetzen besitzen. Außerdem haben sie noch englische Grundlagenkenntnisse und grundlegende Kommunikationsfähigkeiten. Darüber hinaus sind sie in der Lage, allgemeine Forschungen selbständig zu betreiben. [...] Die Absolventen können als Dolmetscher bzw. Übersetzer in den auswärtigen Angelegenheiten, in der Außenwirtschaft, im Außenhandel, im Tourismus, für internationalen Kulturaustausch und Wissenschaft bzw. Technik tätig sein. Sie können auch in der Forschung, Lehre und Administration beschäftigt sein.

The four-year B.A. degree is usually divided into four semesters basic study (or general education) and four semesters major or specialist study. In general education students have 14 to 16 teaching hours per week in German for 35 weeks of the academic year. In addition, eight to ten hours in four to five supporting and often compulsory subjects such as Chinese, English, Politics, Philosophy and Sport are required.¹⁵¹ During the general education students are supposed to attain a common foundation in the foreign language, including (Jia 1992: 116):¹⁵²

sprachliche und landeskundliche Grundkenntnisse, Fertigkeiten des Lese- und Hörverstehens sowie Sprech- und Schreibfertigkeit [...]; dabei werden sie zu sprachlicher und soziokulturell angemessener Handlungsfähigkeit in der deutschen Sprache (kommunikatives Können) und zum selbständigen Arbeiten (Studierfähigkeit) geführt, so daß eine solide Grundlage für die weitere Ausbildung im Hauptstudium geschaffen wird.

In third and fourth years of study, language courses are continued along with linguistic, literary studies and German culture courses, such as an introduction to general linguistics and German linguistics, an introduction to German literature, German history, *LK* and cultural knowledge of the German-speaking countries, essay writing, an introduction to academic research and translation theory and practice (Han 1991: 158; Zhu 1996: 76).¹⁵³ A significant piece of written work is required to complete the B.A.

The Germanistik programmes offered by German departments at the different universities and colleges have their own particular key focus, for instance, literary studies at Beijing University, Business Studies at the Foreign Languages College Shanghai and German area studies and translation at the Foreign Languages College Beijing. Essentially the emphasis depends on the other academic disciplines or specialisation of the particular university (Guangxi 1987: 422; Hernig 2000: 140). Because graduates of the Germanistik programmes mainly become translators and interpreters in industry and will use technical German in later employment, students receive training in the applied use(s) of German after learning basic German in first two years of study. Some departments have introduced specialist programmes to give their students specific training in these areas. For instance, the German

¹⁵¹ Cf. Guangxi 1987: 421; Lekher 1995: 441; Rhie 1997a: 19-20; Liang 1995: 230; Hernig 2000: 122-123.

¹⁵² Cf. Guangxi 1987: 421; Kleppin 1987: 253; Jia 1992: 111; Biere 1993: 6; Liang 1995: 230

¹⁵³ Most Master's level theses are also concerned with topics in these areas.

Department at the College for Mechanical Engineering in Shanghai introduced a specialist programme in the training of translators and interpreters relevant to this field (Sui 1988:111).

The two and a half to three year **Master's programmes in German** offered at Chinese universities, colleges and institutes are a continuation of the Germanistik programmes offered and include courses in technical terminology. A thesis is also required to complete the Master's degree. Only a small percentage of those studying German in China continue onto graduate or postgraduate studies in the subject.¹⁵⁴ According to Neuner (1983/84: 50), there were only circa 60 graduate and postgraduate students at Beijing, Nanjing, Fudan, Tongji universities and the Foreign Language Colleges in Shanghai and Beijing (I) and at the East China Education College in Shanghai in 1982 (out of the circa 1200 majoring in Germanistik at the time). By the late 1980s this figure had risen to over 100 Master's students in German, however, this remains a relatively small number of graduate students. Although there are nine universities that offer graduate level programmes in German, only seven, including Beijing University, the Foreign Languages College I Beijing, the Foreign Languages College Shanghai, Nanjing University and Tongji University, are entitled to award Master's degrees and only the Beijing University is entitled to award doctoral degrees (Han 1990: 158; Huang 1996: 68).

One or two-year programmes in **German as a first or second (or even third) foreign language** parallel to the major subject as an additional qualification, as an applied subject or as a supporting subject are offered at an estimated 100 colleges, universities and institutes in China.¹⁵⁵ Basic language, literature and subject specific knowledge is taught and the main objective is to teach students to read and understand German specialist or technical literature (Sui 1988: 109). The teaching materials and textbooks used have usually been developed for the Chinese teaching and learning context by Chinese teaching staff (Sui 1988: 110). Most of these students are majoring in other disciplines, mostly in the scientific and technical subjects. The exact number of students studying German in this way is not known, but it is estimated that between 2000 and 3000 learn German each year at just 25 to 30 of the estimated 100 institutions offering such programmes (Steinmetz 1995: 534; Hess 2000: 4).

According to Hess (2000: 4), the increased choice now afforded to Chinese students and because English is de facto the first foreign language in China, the number of students studying German as a first foreign language has decreased dramatically during the past ten years. Evidence of this is that in 1989/1990 over 2500 students were studying German as a first foreign language. By 1991/1992 this figure had dropped to only circa 900 students. The

¹⁵⁴ Cf. Guangxi 1987: 422; Hernig 2000: 123-124, 291, 357-358, 383-384.

¹⁵⁵ Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 49; Guangxi 1987: 422; Sui 1988: 110; Han 1990: 158; Hess 1992a: 390-395, 399-407, 2000: 4; Huang 1996: 68; Zimmer 1996: 91.

number studying German as a second (or third) foreign language has, however, increased during the same period and now forms the largest group of students studying German in China.

One characteristic of German programmes in China has always been the focus on “anwendungs- und fachorientierten Kursen, die sehr oft in Verbindung mit einem technischen Studien besucht werden” (Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 590-591).¹⁵⁶ German as applied subject is taught at Tongji University, the Medical University in Wuhan and at Zhejiang University in Hangzhou, because these universities have particularly close relationships with the German-speaking countries. An integrated programme in technical terminology and general language skills as an applied subject is offered at Institute for Foreign Trade in Beijing for foreign trade students and another for tourism management students at the Second Foreign Languages College in Beijing.

Technical universities in particular have been and continue to be interested in developing as many cooperative projects and partnerships as possible with Austrian, German and Swiss institutions and organisations as these are one source of much needed funding. The demand for graduates, teachers and technicians as well as the teaching programme of these universities and colleges is, therefore, economically influenced or based (Hess 1993: 70).¹⁵⁷ In such courses some noticeable changes have occurred, including changes in the teaching methodology (from a focus on grammar towards a more communicative focus); a particular focus on the context of texts read as opposed to an earlier emphasis on each sentence; improvements in the teaching materials produced for such courses; and the development of new testing processes. Problems remain, however, with these courses, such as which texts and teaching methods are best for such students given that many are not Germanistik students (Zhu 1996: 77-79).

One-year ***German preparatory or intensive courses*** for those without German language skills who intend to study or undertake further training in a German-speaking country are offered by German departments at a number of tertiary institutions (Steinmetz 1995: 533). The objective is to enable students to communicate in both everyday and specialist situations in German-speaking countries, that is (Huang 1992: 339):¹⁵⁸

den Adressaten elementare sprachliche Fähigkeiten in den Bereichen zu vermitteln, die zur erfolgreichen Durchführung des Weiterstudiums und der Forschung notwendig sind: Dazu gehören die Kommunikation in alltäglichen Situationen, das Lesen von Fachtexten, das Aufnehmen von Vorlesungen, das Verfassen von Klausuren und wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten und die Teilnahme an fachlichen Diskussionen und Gesprächen.

¹⁵⁶ Cf. Steinmetz 1995; Zhu 1996: 77-79; Hess 2000: 9.

¹⁵⁷ Cf. Liang 1995: 302-304.

¹⁵⁸ Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 50; Zhang 1985: 177; Guangxi 1987: 422; Fluck & Liang 1989: 101; Han 1990: 158; Hess 1992a: 395-399.

The intensive courses normally comprise 20 to 24 contact hours in German per week. Both general German and technical German are taught, and the course finishes with the *Prüfung zum Nachweis deutscher Sprachkenntnisse (PNdS)*, which students require to gain entry to a university in a German-speaking country (Sui 1988: 109; Hess 1993: 58-59). The number of these programmes is increasing to meet the demands of an increasing number of Chinese students and academics wishing to study or train in German-speaking countries (Guangxi 1987: 422). Consequently these intensive courses have become one of the most important sources of enrolments for German departments (Hess 2000: 4).¹⁵⁹

Wegen ihrer ökonomischen Bedeutung für die Hochschule sind wichtige Impulse zur didaktisch-methodische "Modernisierung" oft von ihnen ausgegangen.

However, Hess (1992a: 158-159) notes that not all of those who complete such a course are allowed to travel overseas.

German language courses for the wider public are designed to meet the wider demand for German language skills, which has increased due to the cultural and economic exchange between China and the German-speaking countries. Given this high level of interest the Chinese authorities attempt to ensure that courses are available through every possible media, including through radio and television programmes (which are increasingly popular), distance education courses offered by Beijing University and even via satellite links! (Zhang 1985: 176-177; Guangxi 1987: 423; Ni 1991: 209)¹⁶⁰ It is hoped that the learning of foreign languages, including German, will assist China with its complex problems and contribute to international and intercultural understanding. Very little data is, however, available on these courses (Hess 2000: 4).

The main provider of German language courses (outside of the university sector) is the *Goethe-Institut* in Beijing, which offers language courses at all levels using communicative methods and native speakers as teaching staff.¹⁶¹ Participants also learn about everyday social and cultural life in Germany. There are few other private institutions or schools apart from the German schools (re)established in Beijing in 1978 and in Shanghai in 1995 and the Swiss International School in Hong Kong, which was established in 1969 (Zimmer 1996: 74).¹⁶²

The *DAAD* established a branch in Peking in 1994 and one in Beijing in 1995. The *DAAD*'s role is to foster contacts with Chinese universities and to support relations and academic exchange between Germany and China. *DAAD* exchange programmes for students, postgraduates and academics range from one to twelve months.¹⁶³

¹⁵⁹ Cf. Wannagat 1998: 490.

¹⁶⁰ Cf. Fluck & Liang 1989: 102; Han 1990: 159; Ammon 1991a: 504-505.

¹⁶¹ Cf. *Goethe-Institut* 1998.

¹⁶² Cf. Ammon 1991a: 504; <http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/china/dedeut.htm> (22 January 2000).

¹⁶³ Cf. <http://www.daadpeking.de/> (29 May 1998).

Other organisations represented in China (and Hong Kong) include the embassies of the German-speaking countries, the *Alexander-von-Humboldt-Stiftung*, the *Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (HRK)*, the *Max-Planck-Gesellschaft*, German firms such as Lufthansa and Volkswagen, the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Asienkunde (DGA)* and the *Deutsche China-Gesellschaft (DCG)*, and the German Association of Industry and Commerce (for Hong Kong, South China and Vietnam).¹⁶⁴

German departments in China normally offer a variety of these five kinds of programmes in German. Three such departments, namely Peking Foreign Languages College, Peking University (Bei Da) and Tongji University in Shanghai could be regarded as representative examples of Chinese German departments (Bork 1983: 61-64).¹⁶⁵

Peking Foreign Languages College is regarded as one of the top foreign language institutions in China. The German department was established in 1950 and amalgamated into the Department of East European Languages in 1963. Since 1981 German has again been an independent department, and since 1979 the department has also offered a graduate level programme and a specialised programme for interpreters and translators (Bork 1983: 61, 177; Neuner 1983/84: 51-52). The majority of graduates become university lecturers, translators or interpreters. Students of this institution are also preferred as tour guides for Chinese and foreign delegations as the courses offered focus on the applied aspects of the discipline.

The basic German programme offered is a five-year B.A. degree. During the first four semesters, students learn the basics of the German language with an emphasis on listening and reading comprehension, grammar and speaking. These courses are taught in German. Students also attend lectures in Introductory German Linguistics, European Literary History, German History and an Introduction to German Literature, which are taught in Chinese (Bork 1983: 66-69, 175-179). The language competencies of the students are examined after the fourth semester. The next six semesters are divided into four areas: literature and literary studies, linguistics, social sciences and *LK*, translation and interpretation theory and practice, the first of which is awarded the most time.¹⁶⁶ All courses from the fourth semester onwards are taught in German. Visiting lecturers and professors often give lectures in linguistics and *LK*. Courses in Philosophy, Politics, English, Chinese, History and Sport are also compulsory. Students must present a written piece of work (circa 7000 words) and sit further written and oral examinations to complete their degree.

¹⁶⁴ Cf. Fluck & Kuhn 1995: 491; <http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/enger.htm> (22 January 2000); <http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/china/deforld.htm> (22 January 2000); <http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/china/deverein.htm> (22 January 2000); <http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/china/demitt.htm> (22 January 2000).

¹⁶⁵ Cf. Biere 1993: 7; Liang 1995: 301-304. For examples of the German programmes offered at a number of other Chinese universities, see also Hernig 2000.

¹⁶⁶ Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 51.

The Germanistik programme offered at *Peking University (Bei Da)* emphasises literary studies with a historical focus and is similar to that of a German university (Bork 1983: 62). Most courses (apart from the language courses) are taught in Chinese. In addition to the Germanistik programme, the department also offers a number of different programmes in German as second foreign language (comprising four teaching hours per week for three semesters) and graduate level courses (Li 198-200). Most graduates work in government departments or research institutions. Only in very few cases can they apply their literary knowledge to their work.

The study of at least one foreign language is compulsory at Peking University and students can choose between English, German, French, Japanese, Russian or Spanish (Li 1996: 197). German is popular as a second foreign language for a number of reasons. Firstly because it is regarded as one of the important economic and cultural languages internationally. And secondly because it is the language of a country, which has been very important to China, and which is an important European country (particularly since the reunification). Sometimes the department has even had to restrict the numbers of students allowed to enrol in a given year. Usually circa 500 students learn German in some form in any given year at Peking University. Most of these study German as a second foreign language.

The four-year Germanistik degree comprises two years of basic study and two years of specialist study. During the first two years of study, students receive fourteen hours teaching per week in the basics of German, with a focus on listening and reading comprehension, grammar and speaking. In the third year students receive six hours German language tuition using *Modernes Deutsch*, two hours teaching in German history, German grammar, translation theory, reading German magazines and newspapers and German literature, such as texts from Storm, Zweig and Böll, and three hours in German literary history. The German literary history course is chronological beginning with excerpts of the Old High German *Hildebrandslied* through excerpts of Middle High German lyrics by von der Vogelweide and von Aue to works from the Baroque, Enlightenment, Romantic and Realism epochs. The fourth year of study comprises four hours German language, two hours translation of literary and media texts and two hours 20th century literature. Four optional German literature courses are also offered, each with two hours teaching per week. In their final year students are required to write a thesis on topic of their choice and to sit further written and oral examinations (Bork 1983: 70-71).

Tongji University in Shanghai is different from the others because of its history.¹⁶⁷ In 1979 the Foreign Language Faculty was founded and the Germanistik department established. The key focus of the programmes offered is on the technical and scientific applications of the

¹⁶⁷ See section II.1.2.1 for details. See also Hernig 2000: 307-346.

German language (Fluck and Liang 1989: 192).¹⁶⁸ The development of German at Tongji since 1979 has been aided by the fact that Tongji University is one of the key universities in China and a centre of Chinese-German cooperation. Today approximately one third of all students learning German in China study at the Tongji University (Huang 1996: 68).

German is taught in three departments at the university, each of which teaches a different focus or variant of the language, linguistics and technical or applied programme. The German Department offers a four-year bachelors degree in Germanistik, a two to three year graduate course (which follows on from the B.A.), German as first and second foreign language for students from the scientific and technical disciplines, a one-year intensive course in German as an applied language for students from scientific and technical disciplines wanting or needing to learn the basics of the German language, and other short university and extracurricular courses such as further education courses for German teachers. The Foreign Language Centre offers a postgraduate course for specialist translators and interpreters, while the *Aspiranten-Kolleg* offers preparatory courses for graduates or academics wishing to study abroad in German speaking countries (Bork 1983: 63-64; Fluck and Liang 1989: 92-95).¹⁶⁹

Because Tongji is a technical and scientific university, German technical terminology is emphasised from the fourth semester onwards and German literary courses are offered only as elective courses. As it is too expensive to offer double degree programmes, the language and linguistic courses tend to be integrated into the specialist courses, and specialist technical terminology programmes are offered for graduates of the technical subjects. It is intended to ensure that students gain interdisciplinary competencies and will, therefore, be able to analyse and disseminate information from specialist texts (Fluck and Liang 1989: 93). Graduates of this university become German teachers at the university or specialist translators and interpreters.

The four-year programme is divided into two parts: basic study in the first two years similar to that at Peking University, and in the third and fourth years courses in Modern German (with six hours teaching per week) and linguistics (with two hours teaching per week) (Bork 1983: 72-73). In addition, four hours in Technical German and two hours in Interpretation and Translation courses are offered. Compulsory subjects for students at Tongji are: the history of the Chinese communist party, Political Economics, Philosophy, Chinese, Sport, Mathematics, Physics, General Chemistry, Cartography, Didactics, Elementary German, Technical German, Translation, Linguistics, German *LK*, a Second Foreign Language (mainly English) and Typing. Elective or optional subjects include Modern German Grammar, Selected Epochs of German Literature, Works by German Authors, Lexicology,

¹⁶⁸ Cf. Hornung 1982; Hess 1992a: 375-377.

¹⁶⁹ Cf. Kelz 1982: 79-81; Neuner 1983/84: 52-54; Liang 1995: 302-303.

Stylistics and German History. Students must also complete a written thesis and oral and written examinations.¹⁷⁰

The graduate programme at Tongji holds significant place amongst graduate Germanistik programmes in China (Sui 1988: 111; Hernig 2000: 325-327). In addition to the graduate programme in Germanistik (which usually includes courses in applied aspects), a programme in German as Technical Language was introduced in the mid 1980s for young engineers and academics with good German skills. The aim is to train these students as university lecturers in their specialist subject so they are able to teach their subject in German using technical literature, or as highly qualified specialist translators or interpreters or as linguists for technical linguistics research.¹⁷¹

One characteristic of the German courses offered at Tongji is that most are based on the principle of double qualification - that is, on the study of German plus a vocational or practical subject (Liang 1995: 303-304):

Das Leitprinzip der Doppelqualifikation beruht auf der Analyse der Arbeitsfelder des gegenwärtigen deutsch-chinesischen Austausches, in denen ein großer Bedarf an sprachlich versierten Fachleute und fachlich versierten Sprachmittlern sowie entsprechend qualifizierten Deutschlehrern besteht.

While the German programmes offered in China aim to give students a foundation in literature, the five fundamental language competencies (listening, speaking, writing, reading and translation/interpretation) remain the central focus of the programmes offered.¹⁷² Liu (1999: 786) contends that, while these are important, the discipline in China has to realise that students:¹⁷³

[sich] bloß damit noch nicht an die wirkliche Arbeit anpassen und auch nicht befähigen können, in der immer mehr wachsende internationale Zusammenarbeit interkulturell zu handeln. Das bedeutet, daß man für die Kooperation und Kommunikation zwischen verschiedenen Kulturen nicht nur Mittler der Fremdsprachen, sondern auch kulturelle Mittler braucht.

II.1.4.3 Innovation and reorientation in the field of German during the past two decades.

Given the economic, political and social modernisation and liberalisation programme China has undergone during the past two decades and the resulting reforms in the education sector, it is clear that the Germanistik discipline has had to adapt to the changing environmental and situational factors (Hess 1993: 57):¹⁷⁴

Wohl in kaum einem anderen Land der Welt ist der Deutschunterricht quantitativ so angewachsen wie hier, wohl kaum irgendwo anders hat es in so kurzer Zeit in der curricularen Planung, auf dem Gebiet der Lehrmaterialien und auch in Fragen der Unterrichtsmethodik so große Veränderungen gegeben.

¹⁷⁰ Cf. Fluck 1984: 162; Fluck & Liang 1989: 96-97.

¹⁷¹ Cf. Fluck 1984; Fluck & Liang 1989: 97-101.

¹⁷² Cf. Zhao 1998: 693-694; Richter 1999a: 761-762.

¹⁷³ Cf. Steinmetz 1995: 537-538; Hernig 2000: 255, 446.

¹⁷⁴ Cf. Liu 1982: 29; Buch 1998: 456; Hernig 2000: 146, 293-297.

The diverse and increasingly market-oriented reforms have led to discussion and development of integrated interdisciplinary programmes to meet the increased demand for qualified graduates in economics, trade and tourism (Zhao 1998: 688-689):

Landesweit gewinnen seit Ende der 80er Jahre die reformorientierten Bestrebungen die Oberhand, und die chinesische Germanistik entwickelt sich mehr und mehr zu einem breiteren und umfassenderen Fach, das die traditionelle Germanistik, Deutsch als Fremdsprache, Deutschlandstudien und Dolmetscherausbildung in sich vereinigt.

The discipline in China, as in the other countries included in this study, sees itself in the context of an international decline in the importance of the German language as an international medium of communication and academia. In addition, the geographical distance and the historical and political situation make a German degree appear relatively useless from the students' perspective (Hess 2000: 7). Significant threats to the discipline are the dominance of English within the German industry and the increasingly important economic significance of the Asia-Pacific region to China. English is not dominant because of the cultures of the English-speaking countries, but rather because of its international dominance as an economic tool. This trend is not reversible and, therefore, German cannot compete with English at this level (Hess 1992a: 435, 1996: 31-33). The practice of teaching German as a first foreign language as it has been in Chinese technical colleges and universities is therefore outdated (Hess 1996: 32):¹⁷⁵

In der Praxis ist heute auch in *DaF*-relevanten Berufsfeldern der Industrie *Englisch* eine unverzichtbare Basisqualifikation in der gesamten Region einschließlich Chinas.

Interest in German has declined in the late 1990s and numbers enrolling in German as a major have declined. In addition, the numbers enrolling in the intensive courses and preparatory courses have decreased because entry into study or work programmes in selected English-speaking countries is now easier. Hess (1996: 28-29, 2000: 7) contends that in the next few years there will be a further decline in the demand for and thus a reduction in the German programmes offered in both mainland China and in Hong Kong. Particularly (Hess 2000: 5):

wenn es den Hochschulen nicht gelingt, selbst bedarfsgerechte Ausbildungsstrukturen in Zusammenarbeit mit potentiellen Arbeitgebern aufzubauen.

The changes in the demand for and the range of German programmes offered in China are closely related to the (real or perceived) economic demand (Hess 2000: 4-5). The discipline must survive in the relatively open market and the attractiveness of the subject is dependent on the degree to which German Studies skills open the way to a career or study abroad. Hess (2000: 7) contends that the discipline must ascertain 'niche markets' where German

¹⁷⁵ Cf. Buch 1998: 454-455.

remains important as a second or third foreign language in the economic sense and concentrate on developing and promoting these. This will, of course, lead to a decline in the number of programmes offered, but the programmes offered will, in the end, be sustainable and relevant to today's needs (Hess 2000: 7).¹⁷⁶

According to many within the discipline, the following aspects of the German programmes in China are those that require the most urgent reform:¹⁷⁷

- Foreign language students should learn the basic language skills (correct pronunciation and intonation, listening, speaking, writing, reading and translating skills as well as competency in the applications of German) through constant practice.
- The programmes offered do not meet the demands of today. Graduates find employment mainly in state departments, joint venture firms, foreign affairs, trade and tourism and translation and interpretation so the discipline needs to equip students for these fields. Because of the development of international cooperation and communication and the rapid political and economic reforms, highly competent foreign language specialists with subject specific knowledge are important. *DaF* students, therefore, need to have a knowledge of related or complementary disciplines, such as foreign policy, economics, foreign trade, finance, literature, linguistics, law, journalism, history and computer science so as to be able to match the demand for these competencies and abilities in the employment market. The discipline must meet these demands through integrated or interdisciplinary courses or double degrees combining foreign language learning with a specialist subject (or group of subjects).
- The course offerings are not modern enough. The discipline must produce new curricula, course content and teaching materials and introduce modern teaching methods and applications. The financial problems faced by universities in the past have led to only very slow (if any) change in content, materials and teaching methods.
- The competencies and qualifications which students are taught are not adaptable. Foreign language graduates need to be able to learn new things, adapt and apply their knowledge in different situations, be creative, identify and solve problems and interact in the international and intercultural arena. The discipline needs to ensure students are taught to be flexible, adaptable and well rounded in the educational sense through interdisciplinary programmes or a combination of subjects.
- Graduates are now subject to the demands of the market forces as opposed to previously when employment was assigned. Therefore, the applied or subject

¹⁷⁶ Cf. Hess 1992b: 359-360; Buch 1998: 453, 455, 459-460.

¹⁷⁷ Cf. Zhu 1987: 245; Han 1990: 163-164; An 1999: 701-706.

specific part of foreign language learning must adapt itself to the market demand and should serve the market economy.¹⁷⁸

- The standard of teacher training is not adequate, particularly for those teaching the applied aspects of the subject. An improvement in the training of teachers, particularly in the field of didactics, is required.¹⁷⁹
- Knowledge of a second foreign language (usually English) and information technology skills are increasingly important for *DaF* students as they increase the student's communicative competencies and their employment chances.¹⁸⁰
- Greater value should be assigned to the practical internship as an opportunity for students to put into practice what they have learnt.

Other measures required include:¹⁸¹

- An improvement in the postgraduate level programmes;
- Further research into didactical and methodological issues;¹⁸²
- The development of a national curriculum for *DaF* as a second foreign language;
- The development of centres for foreign language teaching materials, such as a Germanistik Central Library and Document Centre; and
- The introduction of more German courses in the Foreign Language Middle Schools.

In China, perhaps more than in other countries, the discipline has had to make compromises to accommodate the political influence on the education system. Despite this, there have been an increasing number of attempts and innovations aimed at reforming the German programmes offered since the early 1980s, including:

- The redefinition of the subject towards the vocational and applied aspects of the discipline;
- The development of intercultural courses and programmes;
- The development of interdisciplinary courses and programmes; and
- The modernisation and standardisation of language courses (including the development of new curricula and textbooks).

The ***redefinition of the subject towards the vocational and applied aspects of the discipline*** in China during recent years reflects the economic and political reality internationally, which has drastically changed the cultural factors that traditionally protected the tertiary education sector from market pressures. Germanistik as a discipline has been forced to face the associated challenges. In China there has been a change of paradigm within the discipline (Hua 1997: 2). For political and economic reasons, there is a strong

¹⁷⁸ Cf. Kleppin 1987: 254.

¹⁷⁹ Cf. Fluck & Liang 1989: 102-103; Hess 2000: 7.

¹⁸⁰ Cf. Hess 1998.

¹⁸¹ Cf. Neuner 1983/84: 50, 57; Zhu 1987: 245; Fluck & Liang 1989: 103; Han 1990: 163-164; Li 1996: 205-206.

¹⁸² Cf. Wannagat 1998: 490.

trend towards pragmatism. The emphasis of German programmes in recent years has shifted from one of Germanistik to German for business, foreign trade and tourism. This new trend is evident in the number of courses focused on the technical and scientific aspects of the discipline (Huang 1996: 69).¹⁸³

The education sector in China continues to be influenced by the programme of four modernisations. Relations between Germany (and the other German-speaking countries) and China today include cooperation between universities on large-scale technical research projects and the cooperative expansion of industrial plants in China (Hess 1993: 63). It is, therefore, not surprising that the majority of those learning German in China are studying at the technical and scientific colleges and universities, such as Tongji University, the Beijing Institute of Technology and Zhejiang University. These universities have diversified and increased the programmes offered continually during the past ten years, although often without guidelines, which has led to the rapid increase in courses offered without the appropriate quality control (Hess 1993: 64). However, the flexibility means that such courses can be changed more easily and quickly to meet the demands of the market. Tongji's degree for German teachers combining both linguistic and technical aspects is a direct reaction to the need for more qualified teachers in this area to enable further courses to be developed (Hess 1993: 74-75). Hess (1993: 72-73) contends, however, that the technical universities and colleges have not adapted to the industrial and economic demands as much as they could have, and that the discipline needs and has the opportunity to introduce double degrees to meet the needs of the joint venture firms, for instance.

In 1988 Han suggested a vocational component be added to German degree programmes.¹⁸⁴ Since then a number of specialised courses in Foreign Economics, Business German, German Politics, International Cultural Relations have been introduced as part of the programmes in German as a major. There have also been increases the number of *DaF* programmes offered, for instance, in the fields of Science and Technology at Tongji and Zhejiang Universities.¹⁸⁵ However, the lack of qualified teachers in these areas remains a major problem for the discipline. Additionally, there is no binding curriculum, considerable variation in the content of lessons and examinations, and in the standard of examinations from region to region, and no standard textbook for *LK* courses (Huang 1996: 69).

A number of different programmes or models have been introduced during the past two decades to adapt to the changing environment of German in China (Zhao 1998: 689-693).¹⁸⁶ At some universities, such as Peking University, students are now allowed to study minor or supporting subjects. The number of credits required for a major and the compulsory subjects has been reduced to allow minor subjects to be recognised. Some

¹⁸³ Cf. Ammon 1991a: 505-506; Lecker 1995: 441; Hernig 2000: 157-158, 285-288.

¹⁸⁴ Cf. Han 1990.

¹⁸⁵ Cf. Saarbeck 1996; Hess 2000: 7-8.

¹⁸⁶ Cf. Neuner 1986; Timmermann 1999: 484-485.

students choose a number of different subjects, while some have a particular emphasis, such as language and literature. This development aims to encourage independent learning, to create a diverse foundation of education and to combine language study with the study of a vocational subject. Many of the minor courses offered are taught in Chinese and have no direct relation to the history, culture, politics and economics of the German-speaking countries.¹⁸⁷ However, Zhao (1998: 691) believes that this reform should be furthered. One key problem for German departments is how to retain equally good qualifications despite a reduced number of contact hours, so graduates remain competitive in the employment market. Timmermann (1999: 484-485) believes that this system could lead to a double degree structure, but this would require changes in the education system. Such a system would be more cost effective than current one and would increase the students' level of responsibility for their own academic career and qualifications. Students would, however, require advice on programme design and future career opportunities, a task some staff may not be willing to take on.

In some large departments, such as at the Foreign Languages University Beijing, Germanistik or *DaF* is offered in several streams (Kaufmann 1998: 499-500; Zhao 1998: 691-692).¹⁸⁸ The basic study gives students a solid basis in the German language and develops their communicative skills based on the new curriculum. The major study is then divided into three streams: Foreign Policy and Foreign Affairs, Economic Relations with Foreign Countries and Foreign Trade and Language and Literature. All courses are taught in German and are concerned directly with China's relations with the German-speaking countries in the political, economic and social fields. Students must complete a number of courses in the other streams. For instance, students in the Foreign Policy stream must complete the 'Introduction to Literary Studies' and 'German Literary History' courses. There are also common courses for all students, which further develop their communication skills. These streams are diverse and teach students a broad spectrum of cultural, economic and political issues. The lack of specially trained teachers, however, means that Germanistik graduates have to adapt quickly to teaching in this integrated programme!

A number of the small(er) departments have designed study programmes according to their own traditions and situational factors (Zhao 1998: 692). Students at these universities have less choice in minor subjects, and the relatively small number of students (circa 12 to 20 per year) makes it impossible to offer several streams of the discipline. So these departments offer only one emphasis or the combination of language studies with one particular vocational subject. For example, the Foreign Languages University Tianjin concentrates on the training of translators and interpreters, so its programme includes courses such as 'Introduction to the Theories and Techniques of Translation' and 'Interpreting during negotiations'. While translation skills are emphasised, students are required to take other

¹⁸⁷ Cf. Hernig 2000: 291, 447.

¹⁸⁸ Cf. Hernig 2000: 157-158.

courses, such as German history, German *LK*, selected literature and 'A Comparison of Chinese and German Culture'.¹⁸⁹

Zhu (1996: 71-72) urgently calls for a more intensive and standardised programme in German as a foreign language parallel to studies in the major subject due to the increasing cooperation and exchange of scientific and technological knowledge and trade between China and the German-speaking countries. The increasing number of students studying German as a second foreign language at technical colleges and universities provides a perfect opportunity to rationalise and promote these programmes. In contrast to studying German as a major or in an intensive course, students consider the use and application of German learnt parallel to their major subject as being mainly in the increasing number of joint venture organisations in China and not in German-speaking Europe (Zhu 1996: 72-74).

Zhao (1999) describes an investigation into what the employment market for German graduates is like in China and what competencies or skills the market expects or wants graduates to have. Rapid economic development in China as well as the economic globalisation of whole world has led to an increase in the number of German firms with branches or joint ventures in the larger Chinese cities. This has given graduates of German new employment opportunities in addition to becoming translators, interpreters and university lecturers (Zhao 1999: 582):

die meisten ergreifen Berufe in Unternehmen mit deutscher Kapitalbeteiligung als SekretärInnen, SachbearbeiterInnen, ChefassistentInnen usw. Sie sind nun mit neuen Berufsaufgaben in der Wirtschaft konfrontiert, die den Rahmen der traditionellen Germanistikausbildung mit ihrem Schwerpunkt auf Literatur, Linguistik und Landeskunde sprengen.

To meet the needs of the new employment market the Germanistik programmes need to be reformed or adapted. Some students majoring in Germanistik attend night classes in management in order to be sufficiently trained to obtain a position in this field. There has been much discussion in recent years about whether and in what form German programmes could include Business German or management studies in the German context. Some universities have introduced innovative projects to meet these needs. For instance, the Foreign Languages University in Beijing has integrated management-oriented courses into the study of German as a major. The German department at the University of Wuhan has trialed some Business German modules. At Tongji University regular block units in Business German have been taught by visiting German *LektorInnen* since the introduction of the project '*Wirtschaftsdeutsch*' in 1995 in cooperation with the Philipps University in Marburg. The *Goethe-Institut* Beijing also offers seminars on Business German in which over ten universities participate and at which particular aspects of teaching Business German are discussed.

¹⁸⁹ Cf. Koch 1996; Kautz 1996.

However, Zhao (1999: 583) contends that, despite these innovations, one vital question remains unanswered: namely what does the employment market actually need or want. His study aimed to be of assistance in answering this and, thus, with the development of new and innovative Germanistik programmes. One major finding was that interactive communication skills and writing business letters, agendas, memoranda and reports need to be included in German programmes. In addition, it is desirable (Zhao 1999: 596):

daß die GermanistikstudentInnen wirtschaftliche Grundkenntnisse erwerben und so Voraussetzungen für die spätere berufliche Weiterbildung besitzen.[...] Im Unterricht für Wirtschaftdeutsch soll außerdem die interkulturelle Komponente eingebunden werden.

Chinese graduates, who know about the differences between and the history of the two economic systems and structures, are highly sought after in German companies with branches in China. Hess (1992b: 357-358) contends that language skills alone are not desired, but rather are:

vielmehr Teil eines gewünschten integrierten Persönlichkeitsprofil, das auf Kooperation- und Kommunikationsbereitschaft im Arbeitsteam, persönliche und gedankliche Selbständigkeit sowie souveränen Umgang mit wechselnden, fachlich gebundenen Arbeitsaufgaben hinausläuft [...]

Industry wants graduates who can utilise their language skills in combination with technical or subject specific skills to aid international cooperation in China.

The number of exchanges, scholarships, partnerships and cooperative projects between China and the German-speaking countries, in particular the FRG, continues to increase, especially given the number of degree courses now offered in English at German universities. These give students a wider range of opportunities for further study in Germany (<http://www.zju.edu.cn/wb0920.htm> (8 October 2000)).¹⁹⁰ Increasing numbers of Chinese want to study abroad, a trend that will continue given the planned Chinese membership of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 2001. This development is particularly encouraged by the newly established tertiary institutions, which are investing heavily in internationalisation and study abroad opportunities for their students. Germany is a popular destination and this is part of the reason behind the partnership between Hunan College of International Culture and the *Institut für Internationale Kommunikation Duesseldorf (IIK)*, which was formed in 1996 (<http://www.iik-duesseldorf.de/aktuelles> (12 May 2001)). The agreement places particular emphasis on students with international management as major part of their studies and on the offering of specialist preparatory courses in China.

¹⁹⁰ Cf. Schlenker 1996: 227.

Partnerships between German and Chinese universities and other educational and research institutions have led to a number of innovative cooperative projects, including the Institute of Sino-German Economic Law at Nanjing University, which was established in 1989 as a cooperative project between Göttingen University and Nanjing. The institute conducts research on Chinese, German and European economic law and publishes the Annual Journal of the Institute of Sino-German Economic Law and other publications. Chinese Master's level students spend two years in the institute attending classes taught by German and Chinese professors. In their third year students attend Göttingen University to research and write their Master's theses. German doctors of law also study Chinese law at the institute (Hernig 2000: 247-280; <http://www.tongji.edu.cn/english/academics/department1/htm> (2 October 2000)).

Another such initiative established with German financial support in 1985 is the *Ausbildungszentrum für deutsche Sprache Beijing (AfdS)* at the University for Foreign Trade and Foreign Relations in Beijing (Schlenker 1996: 227). The *AfdS* specialises in training Chinese managers and experts, who work in the area of economic and technological cooperation, in the language and area studies skills they will require for further education or training programmes in Germany. About 120 students graduate from the institute's intensive courses each year (Schlenker 1996: 228). The *AfdS* offers clearly defined courses at two levels, each of which are four and a half months long (which is, of course, only a short time to teach basic German and the most important area studies skills) and aims to provide the participants with the ability to:

- Communicate in the workplace and in everyday life in Germany;
- Hold simple prepared technical or subject specific conversations ;
- Follow reports and explanations in the normal tempo of speaking;
- Independently analyse different kinds of texts using the appropriate reading techniques;
- Explain after a short preparation simple technical processes and plants or to describe economic data and facts; and
- Write private and official letters in the correct format.

These developments are progress in that students are taught technological terminology and skills in addition to relatively comprehensive language skills in the practically-oriented courses. However, because numerous vocational courses, such as 'German Conversation for Foreign Trade' and 'German for Science and Engineering', have been introduced, literary studies have been reduced to an absolute minimum at some universities and have lost their place as one of the foundations of the discipline. Hua (1997: 29-30) says that this is because, from the employment point of view, language skills are of the highest priority and no real value is assigned to the meaning of literature. Hua calls for literature to be used in the language and *LK* courses to show students how important German literature is and to build other skills, such as the ability to analyse, rather than just language competencies.

In recent years there has been much discussion about **the development of intercultural courses and programmes** in China, and it has become clear that (Liu 1999: 791):¹⁹¹

der traditionelle grammatikorientierte Deutsch- bzw. Fremdsprachenunterricht geändert werden muß, da er dem Bedarf der Internationalisierung und Globalisierung der Wirtschaft und Wissenschaft nicht mehr entspricht. Daher müßten interkulturelles Lernen und die Entwicklung der interkulturellen Kompetenz als ein zentrales Ziel in Deutsch- bzw. Fremdsprachenunterricht akzeptiert werden.

According to Saarbeck *et al.* (1994: 594), intercultural communication is increasingly recognised and used in courses and the required changes in teaching methods and content are happening. Evidence of this is the establishment of the *Chinesischer Hochschullehrerverbandes für DaF*.

The German department at Qingdao has formed a relationship with the University of Bayreuth and oriented itself towards Wierlacher's model of Intercultural German Studies (Zhao 1998: 693).¹⁹² The Department for Intercultural German Studies was founded in 1994 at University Qingdao in cooperation with the Bavarian state because the political, economic and cultural relations between the Shandong Province and Bavaria had developed rapidly since the establishment of a partnership over twelve years earlier, thereby, increasing the need for people with linguistic, cultural and technical competencies (Liu 1999: 787). The overall objective of the programme is to equip graduates with the competencies to participate in intercultural dealings thereby enabling them to find employment in the field of international cooperation and relations (Hernig 2000: 230-231). The four-year programme comprises four of the five fundamental components of the Bayreuth model of Intercultural German Studies, namely contemporary German language and the German-language literatures, *LK* and comparative cultural studies, basic word processing and the compulsory subjects (as determined by the university and or the Humanities faculty) (Hernig 2000: 231).

Its programme emphasises many elements of comparative cultural studies, including *LK* courses and courses aimed at giving students an understanding of the two cultures, such as 'Comparison of Chinese and German everyday culture', 'Cultural exchange between China and Germany', 'Comparison of Chinese and German communication behaviour', 'German Social History in the 19th and 20th centuries', 'Chinese – German Cultural meeting - Cultural Communication', and 'Culturally specified patterns of behaviour'.¹⁹³ Other courses include 'Modern German language studies', 'German literary studies', 'Introduction to the *LK* of German-speaking countries', interpretation and translation courses and 'German in Business and Science' (Liu 1999: 787-789). The students are given the opportunity to utilise their German skills in intercultural situations and in a workplace setting during a *Praktikum*. One third of students each year travel to Bayreuth for their seventh semester of study, which

¹⁹¹ Cf. Bräsel 1998: 120; Hernig 2000: 409-414, 445-479.

¹⁹² Cf. Wierlacher 1985a, 1987a, 1987b, 1990, 1994, *et al.* 1996.

¹⁹³ Cf. Bräsel 1998: 118-120; Hernig 2000: 26, 223-246.

includes a one-month *Praktikum* in a German firm. For those remaining at home, the *Praktikum* is undertaken in a joint venture firm (Liu 1999: 790).

However, Hernig (2000: 460) contends that the:

stark vereinheitliche Grundstudium, die Fixierung auf den Sprachunterricht, das begrenzte Kursspektrum, der vielfache Rückgang des Kursangebots in der zweiten Hälfte der 90er Jahre und die Fixierung auf Wirtschaftsdeutsch lassen nur wenige Spielräume für neue, damit auch interkulturelle Ansätze, offen.

Günthner (1988: 3-4) calls for more *LK* in the widest sense and team teaching with German and Chinese staff to be included in courses to improve the intercultural communication and to increase the contact with target culture.¹⁹⁴ She (1988: 6-7) continues that systematic teaching of the conflicts that occur in intercultural situations (caused by different sociocultural patterns of behaviour) needs to be implemented. For instance, through role-playing of scenes such as the acceptance or refusal of invitations and the discussion of the differences in Chinese and German.

One initiative designed to achieve this in China has been the development of *LK* courses and textbooks containing relevant *LK* topics. In addition to these, area studies centres have been founded at Tongji University and at the Foreign Languages College in Chongqing. Tongji is concerned mainly with the *LK* topics of the FRG, while the centre in Chongqing researches the history of cultural exchange between China and Germany (Zhu 1987: 245).

Some departments have introduced or experimented with projects using the internet in *LK* courses. In the past teachers had limited opportunities to include up-to-date information and topics in *LK* courses in China because of the difficulties with the postal system and newspaper subscriptions. However, in the age of the internet and computer information technology, this problem is decreasing. The German department at the Foreign Languages University in Guangzhou introduced computer and internet work into its *LK* course in 1998/99 (Thelen-von Damnitz 2000).¹⁹⁵ The three main objectives of this were to develop a new homepage for the department, to introduce the use of the internet to support the work of Master's students, and to introduce *LK* lessons supported by the media and resource possibilities available on the internet two hours a week, for example, through students as individuals and in groups searching for, analysing and speaking on a particular topic. Thelen-von Damnitz (2000: 408-412) says it also gave students and staff (many of whom had never worked with the internet and email before) the opportunity to work with these media, and even changed the way lessons were taught as the teacher became more of an advisor than a teacher in the traditional sense. Unfortunately this pilot project had to be stopped because of high costs to the department!

¹⁹⁴ Cf. Bräsel 1997: 99-113.

¹⁹⁵ Cf. Liu 1982: 32-33; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 592.

The development of interdisciplinary courses and programmes has been a significant part of the innovation and diversification of German in China during the 1990s. Many regard the education of competent Germany experts as an important function of the discipline, and interdisciplinary programmes, which are adaptable and flexible to regional and national characteristics, as one method of achieving this.¹⁹⁶

One such programme is the *Diplomteilstudiengang Fachdeutsch Technik* developed in 1991 by the German Language Centre at Zhejiang University, which could be used as the model for German at technical colleges and universities in China (Steinmetz 1995: 532).¹⁹⁷

Der Diplomteilstudiengang >>Fachdeutsch Technik<< ist ein fachstudienbegleitendes Deutschprogramm für Ingenieurstudenten an einer technischen Hochschule in China, dessen Absolventen vorrangig für den Arbeitsmarkt in China ausgebildet werden.

Zhejiang University is one of the leading technical universities in China with a long tradition of cooperation with German universities and other organisations (Steinmetz 1995: 532-533). Steinmetz (1995: 551) describes the programme's objective as being to train Chinese engineering students so they can communicate competently in the technical fields necessary for their careers and academic study and to not require a translator or interpreter lacking subject specific knowledge, but with good German speaking skills. The main three areas covered by the programme are (i) background and career specific knowledge, (ii) intercultural training, and (iii) technical terminology (Buch 1998: 453-454, 459). Students are taught the skills that the employment market demands, such as the ability to write business correspondence, a high degree of flexibility and the ability to network with other cultures.

The three-year programme runs parallel to the students' second through fourth years of study in their major subject. In their second year of study students are taught the basics of German language with six hours teaching per week.¹⁹⁸ In the summer break a one-week intensive course is held with 24 hours teaching during that week. In their third year of study students receive eight teaching hours per week in (intermediate level) German and attend two weekend seminars per semester (each up to seven hour long). Students then undertake an industry internship during the summer holidays between years three and four. The students receive eight hours teaching in (advanced level) German each week for the final two semesters and attend three weekend seminars (each up to seven hours long). The programme finishes in the middle of semester eight to allow the students extra time for their final written assignments and written and oral examinations in all subjects. Both native German-speaking and Chinese staff teach the courses, although increasingly the Chinese staff are teaching more of the courses (Steinmetz 1995: 540).

¹⁹⁶ Cf. Bräsel 1998: 118; Hess 2000: 9; Hernig 2000: 479-482.

¹⁹⁷ Cf. Hess 1992a: 437-464, 1992b: 353-357, 359-367; Steinmetz 1996: 172-193; Buch 1998.

¹⁹⁸ A semester is usually 17 weeks long.

One fundamental characteristic is the three-phase model of language learning incorporated into this programme, that is, (i) the attainment of basic German language skills; (ii) the introduction to the technical terminology in technical and scientific areas along with continued tuition in general German; and (iii) the transition to learning of technical terminology in German (Steinmetz 1995: 544).

The postgraduate level programme for specialist translators and interpreters at Tongji University is another example of the interdisciplinary programmes introduced by the discipline during the past two decades.¹⁹⁹ This programme is designed for graduates of technical subjects who have at least some basic German skills, and is one and a half years long including the *Praktikum*. The compulsory courses in the programme are Modern German, an introduction to specialist or technical language, mechanical engineering or electronics, translation and interpretation, Chinese-German contrastive linguistics and English. Optional courses include economics, business correspondence and conferencing techniques in foreign trade. However, problems with this concept include finding suitable graduates as candidates and the optimal weighting of the different aspects (technical versus general) of the programme (Fluck and Liang 1989: 99-101).

A brief aside: German Studies in Hong Kong.

Perhaps the best example of an interdisciplinary programme introduced in the region during the past two decades is the multidisciplinary European Studies (B.A.) programme at the Hong Kong Baptist University (Hess 1999a).²⁰⁰ This programme has two primary aims: (a) to give students knowledge of the basic features of the European world, and (b) to prepare them for future employment in the fields of European-Asian relations (Hess 1999a: 61-63). This is primarily a social sciences programme with political science as the core discipline around which the other subjects (including language studies) are grouped. The first four semesters of the German stream are spent in Hong Kong, the next two in Germany or Switzerland and the final two in Hong Kong. According to Hess (1999a: 66-68), the final dissertation or Honours project is the synthesis of all these elements.

The first four semesters are comprised of language training using *Themen neu 1, 2* and *3*, German business training using *Dialog Beruf 1* and *2* and European readings, complemented by computer studies papers and other papers from the university's business school. The paid internship in Germany (mainly in private enterprise rather than government and public administration) is preceded by six months at the *Institut für Internationale Kommunikation (IIK)* at the Heinrich Heine University in Düsseldorf. The *IIK* programme comprises intensive language preparation for the internship phase and courses in European

¹⁹⁹ Cf. Fluck 1984; Sui 1988: 111; Fluck & Liang 1989: 97-101.

²⁰⁰ Cf. Widera 1992; Hess 1996: 50-56, 2000: 10, 1999b; Stählin 1999; <http://www.hkbu.edu.hk/~europe> (12 May 2001); <http://www.iik-duesseldorf.de/beispielprogramme/hongkong.php3> (12 May 2001).

integration, European economic and trade policies, and industrial, commerce and public administration in Germany (Hess 1999a: 63-65, 69-76).²⁰¹

After returning from the internship language training is not separated artificially. Students undertake German study modules, which introduce them to basic concepts of economic and industrial activity, organisational models of management and production, systematic exploration of sales, distribution and marketing, legal structures of businesses, finance and investment and human resource management, German language business correspondence and presentation training, for instance (Hess 1999a: 77-78). Practical and theory are combined and references to internship experiences made throughout. An additional business elective subject taught in English may also be included.

The cultural studies segment includes papers such as 'The German-speaking Area of Europe' (which discusses topics such as denazification, the economic miracle, the generation of 1968 and the reunification), 'Europe: Unity and Diversity', 'Foundations of Political Science', Government and Politics of France/Germany, the UK', 'Contemporary Problems of Eastern Europe', 'Nineteenth/Twentieth Century European History' and 'Growth and Structure of the European Union' (Hess 1999a: 79-84).

To bridge the gap between the more practical industrial management courses and the theoretical political science component, a course on 'The political economy of modern Germany' is compulsory. This includes discussion of the social market economy, the social security system, the crisis of the social market economy and the future of the industrial society in Germany (Hess 1999a: 84-88). These issues are followed up in a Special Topic course, where seemingly German domestic issues are put into perspective by discussing their relevance to Hong Kong's trade patterns and the parallels with local social trends (Hess 1999a: 88):

The study of Germany (or Europe, for that matter) has therefore both a practical function within the framework of trade relations and an exemplary, educational function – its contribution to the training of critical thinking and the application (transfer) of academic knowledge to development issues of society at large.

The Honours project can be written in German or English. To date students in the German stream have written about diverse topics such as contemporary youth culture and the tradition of the 1968 student movement, foreign guest workers, domestic and international reunification issues, Germany's holocaust legacy, the German welfare state, the dual education system, information technology policies, environmental issues and case studies of their internships (such as the retail industry in Germany and the influence of globalisation on Volkswagen and Daimler-Benz) (Hess 1999a: 89-90). There are three distinct groups of topics: economic and or political, social sciences and those based on internships, all central

²⁰¹ Cf. Hess 1999b: 183.

characteristics of this programme. Hess (1999a: 90-94) describes the job prospects of graduates of the European Studies programme as good, if only because the study abroad has increased their confidence and flexibility. Despite this the number employed in German firms in Hong Kong is very low. Most have obtained employment with Hong Kong commercial enterprises and some positions in the service sector.

Germany is Hong Kong's largest trade partner in Europe and the third largest trade partner overall in terms of exports. Hong Kong is also the base for the Asia-Pacific branches of many European companies and is utilised by these as the gateway to the enormous Chinese market. Over 460 German export firms are represented in Hong Kong, where the emphasis is on the facilitation of trade rather than on the production of goods. The use of German in business life in Hong Kong is rather low even in German firms, and English is the dominant foreign language of commerce in the business sector (Hess and Wingate 1994: 522-531; Wannagat 1998: 494-495).²⁰² In addition, since the return of Hong Kong to China in 1997, there has been an increased awareness of being Chinese in this special economic zone. Other Asian languages are also increasing in popularity and importance. Japanese, for instance, has been introduced as a major subject at the Chinese University of Hong Kong as opposed to being only a supporting subject previously (Wannagat 1998: 495, 1999:135-136).

Despite this it is evident that, given the increasing economic liberalisation of China, the role of the *Mittler* or mediator will become increasingly important particularly in the area of trade. This sector will require Chinese who are trained in these areas as German natives often do not possess the required linguistic and cultural competencies (Hess and Wingate 1994: 531).²⁰³

Hess and Wingate (1994: 519-520, 532-533) contend that *DaF* courses in the region must reflect these conditions.²⁰⁴ In the past German was regarded as a *Bildungsfach* in Hong Kong, however, there is no place for this any longer. German is not taught at schools in Hong Kong, nor is it taught as an independent major subject at Hong Kong universities, but rather as part of integrated programmes (such as the European Studies programme at Hong Kong Baptist University or the Bachelor of Arts in Languages with Business (BALB) at the Hong Kong Polytechnic²⁰⁵) or as a second foreign language (usually a supporting or elective subject) for students of particular disciplines (Wannagat 1999: 131-132).²⁰⁶ In addition, 3200 to 4000 adults participate in the *Goethe-Institut* courses each year. The majority are young urban professionals who want to learn German or Business German (since 1993) to enable them to participate in the industry and trade relations between Germany and the region (Hess and Wingate 1994: 521).

²⁰² Cf. Hess 1996: 31-33, 41-50; Wannagat 1999: 126-129.

²⁰³ Cf. Wingate 1996: 191-198.

²⁰⁴ Cf. Hess 1996: 33-34, 37-56.

²⁰⁵ This programme includes German, English and Chinese and China-oriented courses in economics and business management with German accounting for more than half the degree programme (Hess & Wingate 1994: 521).

²⁰⁶ Cf. Hess 1996: 36-37, 50-56; Wannagat 1998: 493-494; <http://www.cuhk.edu.hk> (29 May 1998).

The *modernisation and standardisation of German language courses* through the development of new curricula and textbooks has been a significant development during the past two decades. To ensure the increasing number of students studying German in order to study abroad in a German-speaking country can communicate effectively, to reduce the time needed for them to settle into life in their countries of destination and, above all, to improve and ensure the quality of German courses nationwide, it became necessary to develop curricula for the various forms of German programmes offered (Huang 1992: 337).²⁰⁷

The *Rahmenplan für das Grundstudium im Fach Deutsch an Hochschulen und Universitäten* was commissioned by the State Education Commission and developed by a working group comprising Chinese and German Germanisten between 1985 and 1987 (Jia 1992: 111; Zhao 1998:686).²⁰⁸ The curriculum emphasises the context of language usage, individual skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and the passive and active recognition of social and intercultural characteristics. This development was significant because it was the first time in China that “Landeskunde und sozio- und interkulturelle Aspekte als eines von fünf Lernzielen curricular festgelegt wurde.” (Liang 1995: 231-235)²⁰⁹

The target group of this curriculum is those students beginning to study German at universities and colleges in China. These students will have had English (or another foreign language) at middle school. The primary objectives of the curriculum for basic studies in German are the development of communicative skills in the widest sense, an emphasis on the enrichment of sociocultural knowledge and skills and the development of analytical and other independent learning skills (Huang 1992: 339-342).

A new textbook, *Grundstudium Deutsch*, was developed based on the new curriculum and has been used as the standard textbook at Chinese universities since the early 1990s (Jia 1992: 111; Zhao 1998: 686). The textbook takes into account the specific difficulties of Chinese students of German and contains topics designed to sensitise students to the cultural differences (Zhao 1998: 686). Since the introduction of the new curriculum, the need for a standardised test for German in China also became clear and development of a national final test, *Abschlußtest des Germanistik-Grundstudiums (ATGG)*, has been initiated (Jia 1992:112, 115-120; Zhao 1998: 686).

²⁰⁷ Cf. Jia 1992; Hess 1992a; 407-409, 1993: 61; Dai & Zhang 1996; Zhao 1998; Timmermann 1999: 496; Hernig 2000: 138-148.

²⁰⁸ Cf. Huang 1992: 337; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 591; Steinmetz 1995: 533; Dai & Zhang 1996: 151-162; Liang 1995: 231-235; Hess 2000: 6.

²⁰⁹ Cf. Huang 1992: 343-346; Hua 1996; Dai & Zhang 1996; Zhao 1998: 685.

Das Curriculum Deutsch als Fremdsprache für Intensivkurse zu Vorbereitung auf ein Studium bzw. eine Fortbildung in deutschsprachigen Ländern was developed and introduced in 1987 with support of the Chinese State Education Commission, the DAAD and the Goethe-Institut Peking (Wannagat 1998: 490-491; Huang 1992: 337).

The main characteristics of this curriculum include an emphasis on communicative competencies, qualitative and quantitative determination of the course objectives (such as the content to be taught and the areas of LK to be included) and continuity and flexibility. Although the content is determined by the curriculum, the individual language learning centres have the flexibility to choose the teaching materials and textbooks, teaching methods, etc. to be used (Huang 1992: 339-341). The communicative textbook, *Ziele – Deutsch für Intensivkurse*, was introduced after the development of this curriculum and has been used at the textbook for the intensive courses in German since 1992 (Yao 1999).

Another curriculum introduced, *Das Curriculum Deutsch für Ausbildung und Beruf*, and the textbook based on this curriculum, *Praxis Deutsch – Ein Lehrbuch für beruflich orientierte Intensivkurse*, were specifically designed to prepare Chinese learners of German for further study in Germany (Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 592; Wannagat 1998: 490-491). This curriculum was an initiative of the German Society of Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and has a practical emphasis. It aims to teach Chinese students, particularly from engineering and economics, or business people who are planning to study or receive further training in Germany about every day work and personal situations they may be confronted with in Germany. On completion students receive the *Zertifikat Deutsch für Ausbildung und Beruf* (ZDAB). Annually circa 180 participants complete this in Peking. This curriculum now forms the basis of programmes offered in Nanjing, Tianjin and Chengdu. Such initiatives are well supported because of the long tradition of technical, scientific and economic cooperation between Germany and China (Wannagat 1998: 493).

All language learning centres and German departments at colleges and universities are required to comply with the aims and objectives laid down in these new curricula, in order to gradually standardise and improve the study of German in China in a qualitative sense (Huang 1992: 345-347; Hess 1993: 61).²¹⁰ Most larger universities in China have now introduced these curricula and the accompanying textbooks. While these curricula contain uniform regulations, tertiary institutions are also given freedom to further develop communicative skills combined with sociocultural knowledge and independent study. For example, universities are still able to decide which courses are to be compulsory or optional (Zhao 1998: 685: 687). However, according to Hess (1993: 61), this flexibility is not utilised to its fullest extent.

²¹⁰ Cf. Huang 1992: 346-347; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 591; Dai & Zhang 1996: 156-161; Timmermann 1999: 484.

There have also been a number of attempts to address the problem of inadequately qualified teachers. A large number of graduates are sent to Germany each year for further training in didactics, however, there are no departments in China that offer German teacher training (Timmermann 1999: 486):²¹¹

Die Einarbeitung der jungen Absolventen wird, sofern sie überhaupt stattfindet, von den Instituten intern als Lehrerfortbildung geregelt. Das einzige übergreifende Angebot ist die Lehrerfortbildung des Goethe-Instituts in Peking, die allerdings in Zukunft auch starke Multiplikatoren ansprechen möchte und damit hoffentlich Anstoß zu einer pädagogisch-didaktischen Spezialisierung im Rahmen der chinesischen Germanistik geben wird.

Leonard (1994: 693) contends that Chinese discipline needs to develop its own methodology and didactics based on demands placed on the graduates of German:²¹²

Notwendig ist dafür eine bessere Lehrerausbildung in den Bereichen Fachsprache und Methodik, um die Studenten auf ein Fachstudium im Ausland bzw. eine entsprechende Tätigkeit im Inland vorbereiten zu können.

Two innovative programmes developed and implemented by the Chinese discipline could be an example to the discipline in other East Asian countries, such as Japan and Korea. These are the Hong Kong model of European Studies and the Chinese model of adapting the traditional Germanistik programmes to German Studies programmes with vocational elements (Mersmann 1999: 610-613).²¹³ Hess (1999b: 175) says that the Chinese example epitomises innovation and diversification in the face of the necessity to adapt to a changing environment:²¹⁴

Ein schlagendes Kennzeichen fernöstlicher Innovation ist der Umstand, daß chinesische Universitäten im Zuge der Reform- und Öffnungspolitik enorme Anstrengungen unternommen haben, ihr Lehrangebot im Bereich DaF inhaltlich und methodisch am Markt auszurichten.

²¹¹ Cf. Hess 1992b: 357-360; Hernig 2000: 265-266, 278.

²¹² Cf. Buch 1998: 459.

²¹³ Cf. Wollert 1999.

²¹⁴ Cf. http://www.daad.de/magazin/archiv_neu/thema_des_monats/liste_2001.html (23 May 2001).

II.2 German in Japan.

II.2.1 Introduction.

The German language has a history in Japan of more than 100 years (Beißwenger 1996: 11). The development of Germanistik in Japan is closely entwined with the political, social and educational history and development of the country. Since the Meiji era (1868 to 1912) Japan has had a close relationship with the US. However, until the end of WWII (and particularly during the Meiji era) Japan also had close relationships with Great Britain, France and Germany.²¹⁵ Germany (Prussia) became an example to Japan in many fields including medicine, law, music and academia. These relationships were reflected by the status of foreign languages in Japan (Hirataka 1994: 195-196):²¹⁶

Vor dem Zweiten Weltkrieg hatten Englisch, Französisch und Deutsch ungefähr die gleiche Stellung in der japanischen Gesellschaft, aber seit dem Kriegsende hat die englische Sprache eine fast hegemoniale Stellung auf dem japanischen Fremdsprachenmarkt.

Discussion about the role, status and situation of German in Japan is not new (Tsuji 1989: 13-14). However, those associated with the discipline believe that today it is an ever more pressing issue (Brenn and Dillmann 1989b: 7):

[...] einerseits angesichts der langen Tradition intensiver Rezeption deutscher Sprache, Wissenschaft und Kultur in Japan, bei welcher der japanischen Germanistik sowie den in Japan tätigen deutschen Germanisten von jeher eine zentrale Mittlerfunktion zukam und das japanische Deutschlandbild immer noch in einer für europäische Verhältnisse ungewöhnlich starken Weise von der vermittelnden Fachdisziplin geprägt ist, andererseits [...] auch wegen des hohen Stellenwertes, den Japan als Gegenstand deutscher sprach-, kultur- und wissenschaftspolitischer Anstrengungen im internationalen Spektrum heute einnimmt [...]

Kutsuwada (1989: 339) believes that in order to understand the current context and development of Germanistik in Japan:²¹⁷

[muß] zuerst der Werdegang der „Germanistik“ in Japan einer kritischen Betrachtung unterzogen werden. Dies bedarf einer Perspektive, die die japanische Germanistik nicht nur aus der Sicht der fachinternen Entwicklungsgeschichte, sondern auch in ihrem Zusammenhang mit dem gesamt-gesellschaftlichen Entwicklungsprozeß erfaßt.

Japan's place in the international market has changed dramatically during the 1980s affecting the place of foreign languages, including German (Koshina 1988: 31).

²¹⁵ Cf. Hirataka 1994: 195-196; Wakisaka 1985: 327-331; Ueda 1990: 143-145. See also section II.2.2.1 for further details.

²¹⁶ Cf. Ammon 1991a: 496, Ammon & Michels 1994b: 21-33.

²¹⁷ Cf. Schubert 1987: 69; Iijima 1989: 77; Kutsuwada 1992a: 121; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 25.

Since WWII Japan has increasingly oriented itself towards the US in many sectors, such as trade and education, in part because of the occupation of Japan by American troops (Hirataka 1994: 198-199; Nakamura 1996: 43; Holzer-Terada 1998: 18) and in part because of the dominant position of the US in the international sense (Iijima 1989: 85; Ammon 1992: 205; Hirataka 1994: 195). More recently political and economic relations between Japan and its Asian and Pacific neighbours have increased and diversified.²¹⁸ However, the US remains Japan's most important trading partner and is, therefore, a great influence on the spread and dominance of English. The move towards the internationalisation of Japan has resulted in English becoming the dominant foreign language in Japan (as in China). The Japanese are confronted with English in almost all aspects of life, such as advertising, the media, in business and at all levels of education.²¹⁹ While this is de facto the pragmatic solution to the need for foreign languages in Japan, there have been increased calls in recent years by business and educationalists for an increase in diversity of the foreign language and cultural competencies of graduates.

The 1991 reforms of the tertiary sector resulted effectively in a reduction of foreign language study in order to allow for the more intensive study of the major subjects.²²⁰ The Japanese government has increasingly promoted the internationalisation and globalisation of Japan (Reichert 1999: 823). Without language and cultural competencies, however, Japan cannot truly be internationalised. Mori (1989: 23-24) argues that Japan is dependent on the international market in many respects and, therefore, needs people who may not have direct contact in their employment or everyday lives with foreign countries, but who have a feel for the complexities and diversity of the international market and world cultures. Reichert (1999: 823) defines the prerequisites for successful international relations as being foreign languages skills, a knowledge of cultural qualities and an openness towards other ways of thinking and other philosophies of life.²²¹

II.2.2 Foreign Languages in the Japanese School System: With a Particular Emphasis on German.

II.2.2.1 The introduction and development of foreign languages in Japan: a historical perspective.

The geographical isolation and the historical political isolation (chosen by the *Tokugawa-Shogunat*) shaped the Japanese attitude towards foreign languages. The first foreign language contact was with Chinese in the 5th century. The Chinese culture and writing system were introduced into Japan. The need to translate only the news from the outside world during this self-imposed isolation meant that the emphasis of the teaching and learning

²¹⁸ Cf. Gad 1996a: 4, Aoki 1989: 70-71.

²¹⁹ Cf. Takayama-Wichter 1989: 37; Coulmas 1994: 71-80; Ammon 1992: 207-298.

²²⁰ See section II.2.3.1 for further details.

²²¹ Cf. Brenn 1989a: 205; Feldt 1989: 154; Watanabe 1989: 54-55; Coulmas 1994: 71-72; Christ-Kagoshima 1996: 77; Nakamura 1996: 53; Reinelt 1996: 82-83.

of foreign languages was on translation of the written word. Contact with other languages was essentially contact with texts in these languages (Tanaka 1972: 41; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 31-32).

Japan's first European language contact was with Portuguese in the 15th century. During the self imposed isolation (beginning of the 17th through to the middle of the 19th century) the only European culture and language permitted was Dutch (Mizuno 1966: 132; Koshina 1990: 7-8; Nitz 1991: 156-157). It was through these trading and cultural relations that the Japanese first came into contact with the German language and culture. German was the last of the European languages, after Portuguese, Dutch, French, English and Russian, to be taught in Japan. The impetus for its introduction was the visit to Japan in 1860 by Fritz Albert zu Eulenberg, the then Prussian Internal Affairs Minister, to sign a trade agreement. He brought with him a telegraph machine, the instructions for which were in German. The Japanese government ordered two staff members of the 'Archive of European Books', Ichikawa Itsuki and Kato Kozo, to learn German in order to translate the instructions, which they duly did using a Dutch translation of a German grammar book and another book. A year later the archive staff could read simple German sentences and from there the interest in and spread of the German language began (Mizuno 1966: 132; Koshina 1990: 8-9).²²²

The Japanese government during the 1870s and 1880s wanted to have knowledge similar to that which the European nations possessed in order to improve their military power and to develop industry and the economy.²²³ To do this, the government encouraged young academics to study abroad, imported European academics and scientists as advisors and teachers and established institutions along the lines of their European counterparts, including (Kutsuwada 1992a: 122).²²⁴

die allgemeine Wehrpflicht und die Neuorganisation des Heeres zuerst nach französischem und dann schließlich nach preußischem Vorbild; die allgemeine Schulpflicht, die Organisation des Polizei-, Presse-, Rechts-, Post-, Eisenbahn- und Gesundheitswesens nach unterschiedlichen europäischen Modellen und die Währung nach dem amerikanischen Münzsystem. Die zuständigen Politiker [...] wollten damit demonstrieren, daß die japanische Nation in kürzester Zeit das gleiche zivilisatorische Niveau wie die westlichen Länder erreichen könne.

The first state university, Tokyo University, was established in 1877 against this background and, along with Kyoto University (founded in 1897), had the task of recruiting civil servants, lawyers and academics from various countries to build up the Japanese tertiary education system. The orientation of the academic disciplines at these and the private universities varied according to the influence of academics from the various countries. The law faculties were initially influenced by the American, English and the French models, while the medicine faculties were influenced by the Dutch and the Germans. From the 1880s onwards these

²²² Cf. Tanaka 1972: 42; Iijima 1989: 77; Ishikawa 1991: 11-12; Naka 1994: 237-239, 1998: 5; Beißwenger 1996: 11; Gad 1996a: 3-4; Ueda 1997: 50.

²²³ Cf. Kutsuwada 1989: 339-342, 1992a: 122; Ueda 1989: 27-28; Ueda 1997: 50; Holzer-Terada 1998: 16.

²²⁴ Cf. Koshina 1990: 7-44; Nitz 1991; Naka 1994: 241-242; Kimura 1989: 145-147; Kamimura 1999: 931.

disciplines and professions modelled themselves increasingly on the Prussian example (Iijima 1989: 78-79; Nitz 1991: 172-173; Kakinuma 1994: 35-48).²²⁵ According to Nitz (1991: 157), the development of the medical profession following first the Dutch then the Prussian example was one of the major ways German was introduced into Japan.

In 1881 a change in the direction of the cultural and social policies occurred. Some academics, who had returned from study abroad in the US, England and France, wanted to realise the ideals of freedom and democracy in Japan. They protested against the despotic behaviour of the government, which continued to promote the one-sided process of modernisation and to impose the right of the state. At this point two works of German literature were introduced to the Japanese public as being works depicting the struggle for freedom and democracy: Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell* and Goethe's *Reineke Fuchs* (Koshina 1990: 13-14; Nitz 1991: 174). The German language and culture was, however, not transmitted via German literature, but rather through the government's decision to adopt the Prussian model in virtually all public institutions and sectors in the early 1880s (Kutsuwada 1992a: 123-124).²²⁶

Infolgedessen begann die „Förderung der deutschen Wissenschaft“ unter administrativer Führung. Lehre und Forschung an der Tokyo-Universität orientierten sich fast vollständig an der deutschen Wissenschaft. Englisch und Deutsch wurden Pflichtfächer [...] Folglich sollte Deutsch die Sprache der Geisteswissenschaften und der Bildung werden.

Visits by Japanese delegations and academics to Germany reported back to the Japanese government and led to Germany being regarded as (Ueda 1990: 146).²²⁷

eine kaisertreue, moderne Großmacht, als Land der hochentwickelten Industrie und Technik, als Land mit hohem Erziehungsniveau und als Land eines fleißigen Volkes.

The reasons why Germany was regarded as the example to follow by the then Japanese rulers included the fact that Germany had defeated France in 1870; the wish to be rid of the feudalistic system of government (so England's example could not be followed); a feeling of similarity as both Germany and Japan were essentially late in becoming nations, and the high standard of the German social sciences (Nishihara 1989: 63-64; Iijima 1989: 77-80).

During the Meiji modernisation process (1868 to 1912) the German language, in addition to English, formed one of the most important ways of accessing European cultures and civilisation.²²⁸ Interest in the German language was politically, scientifically and academically based, and German played a role (Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 76).²²⁹

²²⁵ Cf. Mizuno 1966: 132; Krusche 1971: 248; Kutsuwada 1992a: 123; Lange 1996b: 183; Ueda 1997: 50.

²²⁶ Cf. Piening 1997: 140; Naka 1998: 7-10.

²²⁷ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 42; Bauer 1989a: 190; Brenn 1989b: 247-248; Ueda 1989: 27-28; Koshina 1990: 10-12; Beißwenger 1996: 11-12; Holzer-Terada 1998: 16-17.

²²⁸ Cf. Mizuno 1966: 131-132; Krusche 1971: 248; Schnitzinger 1973: 4-7; Bornscheuer 1987: 19-20; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 76; Koshina 1988: 24-26; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 33-35; Bauer 1989a: 189, 201; Hieber 1989: 72-73; Ueda 1989: 28-29; Mishima 1990: 127; Ueda 1990: 143-148; Ammon 1991a: 458, 1992: 205-205, 1994a: 9-10; Nitz 1991: 155; Iwasaki 1994: 7; Slivensky 1995: 337; Beißwenger 1996: 11-19; Kawashima 1996: 146; Pekar 1996b:

in den bedeutendsten Bereichen des Rechtssystems bis zur Kodifizierung der Stellung des *Tenno* in der Verfassung, der Medizin, der Naturwissenschaften und der Technik und nicht zuletzt der Geisteswissenschaften, unter anderem der idealistischen Philosophie Hegels gerade mit dessen Staatsdenken, hat die damalige Oberschicht sehr viel von Deutschland aufgenommen – und zwar mittels der deutschen Sprache.

As a result the German language became one of the most important educational tools at the imperial high schools (which were essentially three-year preparatory colleges for university) (Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 76; Nishihara 1989: 65; Ammon 1994a: 9-10). Primarily the learning of German and the study of German literature was considered important for one's self-development. Additionally those who learnt German were afforded a level of social prestige (Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 77).²³⁰

Wer einmal Deutsch gelernt hatte und beim Trinktreffen im erlauchten Kreise spaßeshalber einige Zitate aus Goethe auswendig hersagte, genoß gesellschaftliches Ansehen. Außerdem galt Deutsch als die offizielle Wissenschaftssprache, aber nicht in dem Sinne, daß sich die japanischen Professoren deutsch unterhalten hätten wie die Scholastiker seinerzeit auf Latein; es genügte als Autoritätsbeweis vollkommen, wenn man deutsche Fachliteratur einigermaßen verstehen und zitieren konnte. Dagegen wurde Französisch lange Zeit als eine Literatensprache angesehen.

One indication of the high level of interest in German was that over 70 percent of pupils at the state preparatory colleges learnt German (Kutsuwada 1989: 342). The normal teaching practice was to quickly teach the basics of grammar and then to move onto the translation of relatively challenging texts, particularly those from the classical period. For a short time during WWII German even became the most important foreign language in Japan as English was regarded as the language of the enemy (Ueda 1989: 32; Koshina 1990: 30; Ammon: 1991a: 458; Holzer-Terada 1998: 17). The almost romantic and idealistic view of the status of German remained prevalent in the Japanese education system (despite historical events) until the mid to late 1960s. However, the dramatic increase in the number of universities and consequently students and the economic development of Japan led to a situation where the relevance of German could no longer be justified in the historical sense. German, therefore, began to lose the status of academic language in Japan as it had internationally (Krusche 1971: 248; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 77-79; Ueda 1990: 147-148).²³¹

English has become the most important foreign language in Japan since WWII (Hirataka 1994: 195-196) and is usually the only foreign language learnt by all high school pupils and university students (Ammon 1994a: 10).²³²

172-173; Lange 1996b: 183-184; Nakamura 1996: 51; Toyama 1997: 54-55; Ueda 1997: 50; Naka 1998; Richter 1999b: 109-110; Klopfer 2000a: 41; Yoh 1999: 409.

²²⁹ Cf. Ueda 1989: 27-28; Nitz 1991: 161-170; Ammon: 1994; Beißwenger 1996: 12; Aizawa 1999: 143-144. For a detailed analysis of the status and use of German in the various academic disciplines and in the professions, see Bauer 1989a and Ammon 1994a.

²³⁰ Cf. Murakami 1989: 59; Naka 1994: 241-244.

²³¹ Cf. Nishihara 1989: 65-66; Nitz 1991: 173-175; Ammon 1991a, 1992: 205, 1994a; Aizawa 1999: 144.

²³² Cf. Ammon 1992: 207-210; Rösler 2000: 55-76; Ishibe 2000: 153-159.

Die sprachlichen und kulturellen Einflußrichtungen wurden durch den Zweiten Weltkrieg bzw. dessen Ausgang massiv verschoben. Insbesondere wurde der amerikanische Einfluß und damit die Rolle der englischen Sprache auf alle gesellschaftlichen Bereiche ausgedehnt und nachhaltig verstärkt. Englisch wurde die absolut dominante Fremdsprache in der Lehre ebenso wie in der Kommunikation. Auch in denjenigen Domänen, in denen Deutsch zuvor noch eine bedeutsame Funktion hatte, begann sich das Englische auszubreiten. Heute hat das Englische auch in traditionell so deutschsprachig geprägten Domänen Japans wie der Medizin oder dem Rechtswesen das Deutsch stark zurückgedrängt oder zumindest überflügelt.

II.2.2.2 Changes and reforms in the Japanese school system since 1945.

During the Meiji era the basic type of school, the *Volksschule*, taught the Chinese and Japanese writing systems, reading, writing, arithmetic, science, geography and history. After attending the compulsory six years *Volksschule* pupils could attend the (five-year) middle school followed by the (three-year) higher schools. Foreign languages were an integral part of the curriculum at the approximately thirty high(er) schools, the task of which was to prepare students for the three years of university study (Schinzinger 1973: 4-5; Iijima 1989: 81; Hirataka 1994: 199). Pupils could begin learning English at the middle schools and learnt either German or French at the higher schools.

German was regarded as the language of academia (Schinzinger 1973: 4).²³³ Itoi (1994: 213) describes how difficult classical texts by Goethe, Schiller and Heine were read in German classes and how it was not the practical application that dominated the learning of German, but rather the increasing of one's academic skills and knowledge. Hirataka (1994: 196) and Itoi (1994: 213) state that before WWII much greater value was placed on foreign language learning within the Japanese education system overall, and that English, French and German were "ziemlich gleich behandelt" ("treated relatively equally"). According to Mori (1994: 58), foreign language learning constituted more than 40 percent, sometimes even 50 percent of teaching time. At some tertiary institutions, such as the Tokyo Faculty of Law, the university entrance examination included the translation, reading and comprehension of foreign language texts so pupils were required to learn foreign languages (Mizuno 1966: 132).

The present education system was introduced under the influence of the American occupying troops in 1947.²³⁴ Primary schooling comprises six years, middle and high school three years each and university study a further four years. Nakamura (1996: 43-44) lists the three main reforms that have had a continuing effect on the teaching and learning of foreign languages in Japan. Firstly, the education system was standardised so that all children went to school at the age of six, attended primary school for six years and middle school for three years. Secondly, the compulsory number of years schooling was increased as part of these

²³³ For a detailed history of German in Japanese schools during the Meiji era, see Beißwenger 1996: 11-19.

²³⁴ Cf. Schinzinger 1973: 5-6; Noiri 1987: 30; Iijima 1989: 83; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 25; Mori 1994: 58-59; Hirataka 1994: 199-200; Itoi 1994: 207-208; Shimokawa 1994: 259-264; Slivensky 1995: 338; Nakamura 1996: 43; Sugitani 2000 96-99.

reforms from six to nine (comprising both primary and middle school). The compulsory period of education was followed by three optional years at high school. General, technical, commerce, agricultural, aquaculture, art and music high schools were established. University level study was lengthened by one year to compensate in part for the two-year reduction of schooling at the middle schools (Schinzinger 1973: 6). Thirdly, discrimination against women in the education system was abolished. Girls/women now had the right to attend secondary and tertiary education institutions alongside boys/men. Under the old system the confucian rule that females and males should not sit at the same table from the age of seven had in effect been the basis for the discrimination against females. For the first time all children could receive teaching in foreign languages during their compulsory education.

After the introduction of the American education system, however, German and other foreign languages, except English, were practically removed from the prescribed high school curriculum. Itoi (1994: 213) found that although the new curriculum still included two or three foreign languages (like the old curriculum), the number of teaching hours was drastically reduced. English became compulsory from the middle school onwards and virtually the only foreign language to be taught in schools and thus became the first foreign language in Japan (Mizuno 1966: 132; Hirataka 1994: 197). Second foreign languages were and are usually studied only at universities.

According to Itoi (1994: 208), ministry guidelines describe the objective of foreign language learning and teaching in Japan as being to develop:

[...] die Persönlichkeit der Schüler in einer Atmosphäre der „Internationalisierung“
[...] mit dem Schwerpunkt auf den nötigen Fähigkeiten zum Alltagsleben in einer internationalen Gesellschaft.

The standard secondary school curriculum comprising compulsory and optional subjects is prescribed, as are the nine subject areas. However, each school is able to decide which courses are taught within those areas, including whether German is to be taught as part of the foreign languages subject area (Itoi 1994: 209-210). The ministry's guidelines determine the general objective of the subject, the content of the subject and the way in which this should be taught. In the case of German, the four skill areas (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are supposed to be afforded equal emphasis (Itoi 1994: 211-212).

It remains theoretically possible under the Ministry of Education curriculum guidelines for pupils of middle and high schools to be able to learn German or French instead of English. However, in reality very few middle and high schools offer German or French as a second language and the number of schools that offer German or French as the first foreign language are few (Mori 1994: 58). In 1966 only approximately ten high schools continued to teach German (Mizuno 1966: 132). In 1989 approximately 4000 pupils at only one middle

school and at forty high schools in the whole of Japan (out of approximately 4500 such schools) were learning German. According to Takayama-Wichter (1989: 25), this constituted only 0.08 percent of the total number of high school pupils in Japan (approximately 4 890 000). The number of hours per week was and is very limited (Stuckenschmidt 1989: 16-17; Ammon 1991a: 495-496). A further 15 000 pupils between the ages of 15 and 20 were learning German at vocational high schools. However, Stuckenschmidt (1989: 17) contends that in general these pupils have no opportunity to continue their studies of the language and their competency level is rather low. Takayama-Wichter (1989: 26) found that, while some private middle schools in Japan offered German (or French) as a second foreign language, this was rare.

By 1995 the number of (state and private) high schools offering German as a second language (along with French and Chinese) had risen to approximately 65. This included 22 high schools at which additional lecturers were teaching second foreign languages within the framework of the 'Diversification of Foreign Languages' initiatives introduced in 1991 by the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs (Sugitani 1995: 215-216).²³⁵ A number of new (so-called international) schools were founded in the 1980s and 1990s, each with a department of foreign languages. Pupils at these schools learn English and a further foreign language (with two to four teaching hours per week) (Itoi 1994: 216-217).

Those high schools at which German was and is taught are those schools which have a high percentage of graduates who will attend university, whose graduates will attend an affiliated university or are music high schools. Most of these schools are concentrated in and around Tokyo (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 28; Itoi 1994: 215-216). Itoi (1994: 213-217) divides the high schools at which German is taught as either a first or second foreign language into three groups: (i) those schools at which German was already taught under the old school system (e.g. Dokkyo, Wasedakōtōgakuin and Musashi High Schools); (ii) those schools at which German was introduced under the new school system (e.g. Kitazono and Gakushin Joshi); and (iii) those schools that have only begun to teach German in recent years (e.g. Inasōgō and Okayamajōtō).

Despite the apparent increase in the number of high schools offering German in some form, the number of pupils (relative to the overall number of pupils attending high school) choosing to learn German as a first foreign language has declined dramatically since the reforms of the education system. According to Itoi (1994: 214), the three main reasons for this would appear to be the difficulty of learning German to a sufficient level in three years to pass the university entrance examination, the fact that students will have to learn English at a later date in their studies anyway and that those learning German require a greater number of

²³⁵ Ammon (1992: 213) found that 68 high schools (29 state and 39 private) offered German as a foreign language. Pupils learnt German for a maximum of three years, sometimes only in work groups outside of regular classes. Another study in 1994 found that there were approximately 90 high schools offering German in Japan (Itoi 1994: 213).

teaching hours per year than those learning English. However, although the number of candidates who wish to sit the entrance examination in German is declining year by year, the number of pupils who are choosing German as a second foreign language at high school appears to be increasing steadily each year (even though most only learn it for a year!) (Itoi 1994: 219).

II.2.3 The Role of Foreign Languages in the Tertiary Sector.

II.2.3.1 Changes and reforms in the tertiary sector since 1945 and the effect on foreign language teaching and learning.

As in China the 1947 education reforms in Japan resulted in the opening up of tertiary education to the masses (instead of only the elite) and the subsequent dramatic increase in the number of universities (and similar institutions), in students and of required teaching staff. This increase in the number of institutions and students paralleled the dramatic increase in economic productivity that Japan was experiencing (Noiri 1987: 30; Kutsuwada et al. 1987: 78; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 39-40; Iijima 1989: 86-87). At the beginning of the 1960s circa 220 000 students attended the 245 universities in Japan. Ten years later the numbers attending university had almost tripled to 550 000. By 1990 the number of universities had risen to 593. In the mid 1990s circa 30 percent of high school graduates went on to university as compared with the 1960s when only 8 percent of the high school graduates were able to continue onto tertiary study. By 1997 this had risen to 34.9 percent and by 2009 it is expected that all high school leavers will continue onto tertiary education (Shimokawa 1994: 267; Sugitani 1995: 216, 2000: 97, 110; Yoshijima 1996: 46; Wakisaka 2000: 120). Schinzinger (1973: 5) and Takayama-Wichter (1989: 40) believe that the seemingly unlimited expansion of the tertiary sector has resulted in a reduction in the standard of education.

A key term and ideal of these reforms was that of 'general education' (*Allgemeinbildung*).²³⁶ Ueda (1989: 33) describes this as being aimed at educating a new type of Japanese "mit demokratischer Einstellung, humanistischer Bildung und gesundem Verstand".²³⁷ These reforms resulted in university degrees being divided into two sections: two years general education followed by two years specialist study in the major subject.²³⁸ General education included, for instance, lectures in the sciences, social sciences, civilisation studies (which included foreign languages), health and sport. Each tertiary education institution was required to offer these subjects according to government regulations in order to be regarded as such an institution. Students were required to attain a certain number of points in these areas to be allowed to graduate after a further two years study. To accommodate these changes most state and public universities introduced separate faculties of general

²³⁶ For detailed discussion of *Allgemeinausbildung* in Japan, see Schubert 1989.

²³⁷ Cf. Iijima 1989: 83-84.

²³⁸ Cf. Slivensky 1995: 338; Yoshijima 1996: 46; Nakamura 1996: 48-49; Mandelartz & Yamamoto 1999: 3; Sugitani 2000: 96.

education, called Kyoyo-bu or Kyoyo-gabuku, which students attended for the first two years of study (Nakamura 1996: 48-49). Students began their specialist study in the major subject in the third year, while the fourth year was mainly used to obtain employment (Mandelartz and Yamamoto 1999: 3). Yoshijima (1996: 46) describes the reforms as follows:²³⁹

Aus den alten Oberschulen und Universitäten wurden sogenannte Neu-Universitäten gemacht, ohne daß dabei die alte Funktionsverteilung ganz aufgehoben wurde. Die alte Oberschule fungierte jetzt als propädeutische Abteilung (Kyoyobu) und die alte Universität als eigentliche Fachausbildungsinstitution.

Some private universities, such as Waseda, introduced a different system, whereby each faculty had a department responsible for the teaching of the general education subjects. The sport and health classes were usually taught within a central department of sport (Nakamura 1996: 49). However, Nakamura admits that the tensions between the general education departments and the specialist subject areas were clearly evident.

Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 3) argue that this juxtaposition of general education and specialist study resulted in professors in the general education faculties being regarded more as teachers than academics by their colleagues. Consequently two groups of professors formed within the universities, between which there was and is little interaction.

Under the system introduced in 1947, each university was required to offer at least two foreign languages as part of its programmes. Effectively this meant that the old system, the *Kyusei-Koko* tradition, whereby English, German and French were offered, continued (Okamura 1996: 119-120). These reforms resulted in German becoming established as one of the group of second foreign languages offered as part of the two-year general education part of a Bachelor's degree.²⁴⁰ In fact, Okamura (1996: 120) says this regulation:

war lange Zeit die einzige juristische gesicherte Grundlage für die Existenz des Deutschunterrichts an japanischen Hochschulen, neben den anderen Sprachen des Lehrangebots.

English was (and is) the compulsory first foreign language and a second foreign language was (until the early 1990s) compulsory at most universities. Students could (and can) choose between German, French, Russian, Spanish and Chinese (and more recently Korean) and had (or have) on average four to six teaching hours in their chosen second foreign language per week for two years as part of their *studium generale*.²⁴¹

Since 1945 the Higher Education Act has been reformed several times and these reforms have impacted on the teaching of foreign languages. Each of the reforms has decreased the minimum number of teaching hours for German as a foreign language in the *studium generale* (Ueda 1989: 34; Hirataka 1994: 196-203; Holzer-Terada 1998: 23). The latest

²³⁹ Cf. Hirataka 1994: 196-197.

²⁴⁰ Cf. Stickel 1973: 11; Iijima 1989: 84; Asakura 1992: 23; Slivensky 1995: 338; Kaufmann 1996: 60.

²⁴¹ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 43; Ueda 1989: 34; Kimura 1989: 138; Richter 1989: III; Ammon 1991a: 458; Sugitani 1995: 215.

reforms in 1991 have removed the institutional parameters that safeguarded the Germanistik discipline to a point.²⁴²

Despite these reforms and the effect of the student demonstrations in the late 1960s, the structure of Japanese universities remained essentially unchanged up until the late 1980s from the model introduced in the late 1940s.²⁴³ The relative autonomy of universities in the setting of study programmes and staffing issues was an advantage in some ways, but also meant that universities were dependent in part on the demands of society and the economy. In addition, most universities received little financial and staffing resources. Most research was (and is) carried out by industry not universities and many researchers went (and continue to travel) overseas to undertake research. Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 2) argue that this resulted in little interest on the students' part in continuing their education at the graduate or postgraduate level.

Another characteristic feature of the Japanese education system is the university entrance examinations. The entrance examinations, which are set down by a special division of the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs with input from the universities, were introduced during the Meiji era and were based on the Chinese *Beamtenprüfung*.²⁴⁴ The entrance examinations form the central focus of high school pupils' lives today and have recently been subject to much criticism because of the effect they have on the quality of life of young Japanese (Nakamura 1996: 47-48; Holzer-Terada 1998: 19-20, 30-31; Oswald 1999: 87).

The examinations also have an effect on the teaching methods utilised in schools as almost all subjects, including foreign languages, are learnt by rote. Stapleton (1996: 31) contends that:

the much criticized rote learning, that characterizes Japanese education is not just a mindless exercise in futility; rather it is a method by which students can demonstrate their compliance to a system that demands unquestioning effort and devotion to the task at hand along with the restraint of individual desires.

Holzer-Terada (1998: 31) says that Japanese employers value these qualities and that is one of the reasons why employers want to recruit employees from the reputable universities with the most difficult entrance examination process. Foreign languages, with the exception perhaps of English, play little part in these examinations today, which is in direct contrast to the traditional emphasis on foreign languages before 1947. Where second foreign languages are a required subject for the entrance examinations (at some private universities, for instance), it is usually only the written language skills of pupils that are tested using

²⁴² Cf. Mizuno 1966: 131-132; Krusche 1971: 248; Zeydel 1973: 324; Haasch 1976: 121; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 79; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 35-39; Stuckenschmidt 1989: 17-19; Ammon 1991a: 458; Mori 1994: 49-62; Kakinuma 1994: 36-39; Shimokawa 1994: 266-269; Ammon & Michels 1994b: 21-33; Toyama 1997: 50; Gunske von Kölln 2000: 116.

²⁴³ Cf. Yoshijima 1996: 46; Mandelartz and Yamamoto 1999: 1-2.

²⁴⁴ The *Beamtenprüfung* together with Confucianism were originally adopted by Japan in the 7th century (Schubert 1989).

multiple choice questions (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 45-46; Nakamura 1996: 47-48; Holzer-Terada 1998: 31).²⁴⁵ This clearly has an effect on the entire context and situation of the foreign language disciplines in Japan.

Despite recent reforms it remains, in general, more important in Japan which university one attended than what one actually studied or how high one's grades were (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 42-43).²⁴⁶

Wichtig ist, kurz gesagt, nicht, was man studiert hat; wichtig ist, wo man studiert hat.

Japanese universities are ranked, with the top universities being the state universities Tokyo and Kyoto, the graduates of which are recruited each year by the government ministries and large firms. Entrance to a university influences a graduate's later career path and opportunities. There is more often than not no correlation between the subject a graduate majored in at university and their subsequent career except in the scientific, medical and law disciplines. Job training and further education in Japan is carried out almost exclusively within the firms themselves.²⁴⁷

The separation of specialist training and general education has increasingly been regarded as a weakness, and the Japanese university system proved to be inefficient given the changing contextual factors. Several attempts to reform various parts of the tertiary education sector were undertaken in the 1980s and 1990s (Shimokawa 1994: 268-273; Mandelartz and Yamamoto 1999: 3-6). Many universities had already started to allow (or even expect) students to enrol in courses, which were compulsory for their major subject during the *studium generale* (Nakamura 1996: 49-50). Significant changes occurred in 1991, when the Higher Education Act was again reformed to take into account the changes in Japan's development and its place on the international market.

Ammon (1994a: 10) describes the 1991 reforms as having:

die bisher für alle Universitäten bestehende Verpflichtung zu einem Studium generale aufgehoben. Bestandteil diese Studiums war aber in aller Regel eine zweite Fremdsprache, neben Englisch, und die insgesamt am häufigsten gewählte zweite Fremdsprache war Deutsch. Nach der neuen Regelung können nun die Universitäten, ja sogar die einzelnen Fachbereiche, frei entscheiden, ob sie ein obligatorisches Studium generale aufrechterhalten, ob sie es fakultativ anbieten oder ganz abschaffen.

The clearly defined separation between the general education and specialist study was removed. Some state universities have reorganised the general education faculties into faculties with interdisciplinary programmes, which the students attend for the four years of

²⁴⁵ Multiple choice questions form the basis of examinations in most subjects in Japan, not just foreign language examinations.

²⁴⁶ Cf. Ueda 1990: 142; Coulmas 1994: 73; Yoshijima 1996: 47.

²⁴⁷ Cf. Takayama-Wichter 1989: 42-43, 63-64; Coulmas 1994: 73; Sugitani 1995: 217; Timmermann 1999: 482; Mandelartz & Yamamoto 1999: 2; Sugitani 2000: 101-102.

study. By the mid 1990s many (particularly private) universities or faculties had introduced measures in keeping with these reforms and had attempted to distinguish themselves from other institutions in order to gain a profile and attract students.²⁴⁸ The state universities had to introduce the reforms rather quickly, while the private institutions have had more time to reform as the Ministry of Education prescribes only minimal directives for the private universities (Nakamura 1996: 50). Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 1) describe how the private universities had (and have) more freedom in the organisation of their study programmes and, therefore, have sometimes been an example to the state universities. Others have continued to require students to study a second foreign language, thereby remaining with the traditional model.²⁴⁹ However, the private universities are so diverse in type, target group and financial situation that it is difficult to make generalisations about these institutions.

According to Yamaji (1994: 233-234), 38 percent of all universities have reformed their curricula since the introduction of the university reforms in 1991. Gad's survey (1996c: 211-216) showed that by 1995 most universities had introduced changes to the organisational structure of the institutions due to the 1991 reforms. However, this process was by no means complete as more structural changes are planned. Changes already in place by 1995 included the dissolution of the general education faculties, German departments and language institutes and the introduction of new faculties and departments such as Policy Studies, Regional Social Studies, International Cultures, International Management, Language and Culture, Contemporary Society and International Studies (Shimokawa 1994: 270-273; Gad 1996b: 212).

Planned changes include the introduction of new study programmes such as European Linguistics, Literary Studies and German Studies. Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 7-8) also found that diverse new curricula and programmes have been introduced since the 1991 reforms as universities now have more autonomy when setting the curriculum, the required amount of credits for a degree and for the major subject. These innovations included cultural studies and women's studies programmes, the introduction of distance education universities and degree programmes aimed at older students. In most technical faculties very few of the general education subjects remain.²⁵⁰

In addition, the transition between degree programmes has been made easier, meaning that "die Festlegung der Karriere schon im Vorschulalter zumindest teilweise wieder aufgehoben [wurde]." (Mandelartz and Yamamoto 1999: 7-8) For students these changes have meant

²⁴⁸ Cf. Ammon 1992: 213, 1994a: 10; Shimokawa 1994: 259-260, 270-273; Sugitani 1995: 219, 2000: 110-112; Okamura 1996: 120; Nakamura 1996: 50; Holzer-Terada 1998: 24; Mandelartz 1999: 6; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 32.

²⁴⁹ Cf. Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 24-25.

²⁵⁰ It would appear, however, that many of these initiatives have been introduced on an ad hoc basis without systematic planning and development. For example, simply renaming the faculties of General Education or reducing the number of teaching hours for a particular subject.

the transition from general education to their major now generally occurs earlier and in a more fluid manner than under the old system. Students can now enrol in courses in their major subject in the first year of study, meaning that the general and specialist study run parallel for the first two years of study (Mandelartz and Yamamoto 1999: 6-7). Although this may work in the literary and linguistic courses, which are taught in Japanese, Mandelartz (1999: 8) maintains that this does not work in the language classes for the students majoring in German where beginners are placed with relatively advanced students.

As a consequence of these reforms the study of a second foreign language is no longer compulsory at most universities, but rather a matter of student choice (Ueda 1997: 54; Reinelt 1996: 81-82; Aizawa 1999: 143-144). According to Okamura (1996: 120), the teaching of foreign languages, which is often considered ineffective in any case, could in theory be completely abolished and the extra teaching positions used for the teaching of major subjects. Another possible option is to concentrate all language teaching on the teaching of English. Holzer-Terada (1998: 23) gives the example of Hokkaido University, where as from 1995, the second foreign language programmes were reduced by half within the technical study programmes. Further reductions are expected in the future.²⁵¹

As the curriculum guidelines for universities in Japan allow each university to set its own curriculum, the number of teaching hours for the second foreign language programmes varies greatly from university to university. Some universities have allocated only one 'two-hour' lecture (90 to 100 minutes) in a given foreign language per year! More usual is the model where students receive one 'two hour' lecture in their chosen foreign language per week for the 25 week long academic year (Asakura 1992: 36-37). These reforms have placed the foreign language disciplines under further pressure as those involved in teaching German as a foreign language, for instance, feel they must introduce new and innovative programmes to attract and retain students.²⁵²

Some, including Shitanda (1993: 729), expect that the general education section (semesters one through four) will be reduced and that this will result in the number of German courses offered as part of this being reduced. Others, like Schmidt (1999: 48), say that although the educational reforms in Japan have not happened in the ad hoc manner that similar reforms in countries such as Korea have,²⁵³ that the reforms are:

tendenziell sicherlich ähnlich in der Langzeitwirkung, daß die japanischen Hochschulen im Bereich der zweiten Fremdsprache abbauen und umbauen, also umstrukturieren wollen / müssen, was in Zukunft den Stellenmarkt für die deutsche Sprache noch enger werden läßt, zumindest stark verändern wird.

²⁵¹ Cf. Asakura 1992: 36-38; Hayakawa 1994: 296.

²⁵² Cf. Shimokawa 1994: 270-273; Reinelt 1996: 79-87; Kawashima 1996: 146; Ueda 1997: 54; Mandelartz & Yamamoto 1999: 7; Richter 1999b: 113; Wakisaka 2000: 122.

²⁵³ See section II.3 for further details.

Itoi (1994: 208) outlines the directives from the Ministry of Education (within the parameters of which the educational institutions are required to plan their curricula) as including the:

- (1) Erziehung lebenskräftiger und gut gesinnter Menschen;
- (2) Betonung grundlegender, für die Staatsbürger unentbehrlicher Bildung und Erziehung zur Entfaltung der Individualität;
- (3) Förderung der Fähigkeit zur Selbstbildung;
- (4) Hochschätzung der japanischen Kultur und der nationalen Traditionen sowie Förderung des Verständnisses internationaler Beziehungen.

One contradiction between the Ministry of Education's objective of internationalisation, the above objectives and the actual measures introduced into the education system during the recent reforms, is that English is taught as the only compulsory foreign language from the middle school onwards. This means that most high school graduates have had six years English lessons at school, but must learn a second foreign language from beginner's level at university (should they choose to).²⁵⁴

Reinelt (1996: 81-82) contends, however, that without more foreign languages internationalisation is not possible. The Japanese education system has begun to realise this and moved to diversify the second foreign languages offered. English is almost always the first foreign language of choice and Japanese students (similar to their Chinese counterparts) can now choose between German, French, Chinese, Russian and Spanish, although only the larger universities offer Russian and Spanish (Mori 1989: 21; Asakura 1992: 34; Ueda 1997: 53-54). This has meant increased competition for student numbers, although German remains the second foreign language most commonly chosen. Of 100 students (required or choosing to learn a second foreign language) 60 learn German, 25 French and about 10 learn Chinese, Russian or Spanish (Mori 1989: 21). However, the languages of Japan's neighbours (Russian, Chinese and Korean) and Spanish are becoming increasingly popular.²⁵⁵

Gad (1996a: 4) and Aoki (1989: 70-71) say that the increasing popularity of other Asian languages, such as Korean and Chinese, is part of a regional social and political reorientation towards the Pacific economic region.²⁵⁶ A recent survey showed that languages such as Thai, Indonesian and Tagalog are in higher demand outside of the universities and are more popular than the traditional second foreign languages like German and French. This diversification is on the one hand a positive development, but Gad (1996a: 4-5) contends that it must be seen in the light of a change of paradigm. That is, the traditional ideals such as learning a cultural language, which adds to one's general education and development, are being replaced by more pragmatic considerations:

²⁵⁴ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 43; Koshina 1988: 31-32; Iijima 1989: 80-81; Ammon 1992: 205; Hirataka 1994: 195-197; Holzer 1996: 89; Holzer-Terada 1998: 18-19; 87-89.

²⁵⁵ Cf. Aizawa 1999: 143-144; Hirataka 1999: 155; Ikeda: 1999: 17; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 26.

²⁵⁶ Cf. Kimura 1989: 138; Iwasaki 1994: 7; Sugitani 1995: 215, 2000: 114-115; Gad 1996a: 4; Christ-Kagoshima 1996: 73; Aizawa 1999: 143-14146; Kloepper 2000a: 51; Gunske von Kölln 2000: 114.

welchen beruflichen Nutzen Fremdsprachenkompetenz bringen könne – wie das Lernen sich „auszahle“. Ablesbar ist diese Tendenz insbesondere an der zunehmenden Diskussion um Fachsprachenunterricht. Auf diesen Wandel sind die Träger und Förderer der deutschen Sprache in Japan nur ungenügend vorbereitet.

Haarmann (1994: 118-119) describes the situation of foreign languages in Japan as symbolic rather than for practical uses. For instance, there is a relatively small number of bilingual children even in families where one parent is a foreigner. Also English is the (foreign) language of communication between the Japanese and the other Asian minorities who live in Japan, such as the Korean, Ainu and Chinese. There is also a tendency on the Japanese government's part to promote bilingualism, which is understood as meaning Japanese and English (Gunske von Kölln 2000: 101). This quite clearly sends a powerful message to employers, students and the public at large.

II.2.3.2 Languages in the competitive context: the example of German.

Foreign languages in Japan have increasingly found themselves in a competitive environment given the diversified international market, the increase and diversification of tertiary education providers, the diversification of the political, economic and social orientation of Japan, the new career opportunities and subject diversification (e.g. more Asian languages offered, the introduction of information technology subjects) and given that the learning of foreign languages, with the exception of English, is now essentially optional in Japan (as opposed to the earlier requirements of the education system). Given this competitive context, a number of additional factors must be taken into account when analysing the trends in German programmes in Japan. As in China, these factors include:

- The career application of a subject (including the role and use of German in the various sectors of society);
- The perception students have of the language;
- Institutional factors (such as large class sizes and curriculum requirements);
- Linguistic differences (between Japanese and German); and
- Social and cultural factors (such as the tendency of Japanese students not to express their own opinions in public).

Asakura (1992: 34) summarises the difficulties associated with the development of German courses in Japan under four headings:²⁵⁷

- (a) Problems created by the changing international situation (including the fact that the European specialist literature is no longer as important as it was historically, that German is no longer regarded as an international academic language and the increasing importance of the spoken language);²⁵⁸

²⁵⁷ Cf. Takayama-Wichter 1989: 332-333; Dillmann 1989b: 212.

²⁵⁸ Cf. Ammon 1991a, 1994a; Nakamura 1996: 51-52.

- (b) A lack of appropriate measures in language education to enact the necessary changes (including an excess of language teachers trained to teach European languages and a lack of teachers trained to teach Asian languages);²⁵⁹
- (c) Problems with the training and orientation of German teachers;²⁶⁰ and
- (d) Internal problems at the universities.

One significant factor is the question of *the perceived limited usefulness or career application* of the subject. Germanistik graduates have few employment options directly related to their major, even in branches of German firms in Japan, where more often than not English is the language of communication. Career or job training is essentially carried out within the firms and there is often little correlation between the subject studied (except in the scientific disciplines) and a graduate's eventual employment.²⁶¹ The fact that specialist training (including foreign language training) is frequently provided by companies adds to the perception that the study of languages is not vital for future employment.

Mandelartz (1999: 7) says that the downward trend in students enrolling in German is a reflection of the reality of education opportunities, such as the introduction of new subjects like Information Technology, and career prospects in Japan. The employment chances of a Germanistik graduate, who wants to and is trained to teach language and literature, are now very bleak (Ammon 1991a: 496; Yoshijima 1996: 47). If a student wants to obtain a position as a teacher, then English language and literature or Japanese, Chinese or Vietnamese Studies will give them a better chance. For practical reasons German is often just the second or third choice (after English or Japanese Studies) (Aizawa 1996: 165-166).²⁶²

Die Vorstellung vom „Deutsch als Berufsqualifikation“ gibt es weder unter den Studenten noch unter den Lehrenden noch bei den Firmen, und gerade diese Tatsache ist ziemlich entscheidend für die jetzige Krise.

One survey of why students were learning German found that 33 percent of the students were studying German because it was compulsory, 29 percent because it simply belongs to one's general education and only two percent because it might help them to find employment (Ueda 1990: 142)! Another indication of the limited usefulness of German in employment in Japan is a study of how many job advertisements included mention of German language competencies. Ammon ((with Kato) 1994c) found that only a very small percentage of advertisements in the papers analysed contained requirements for German language competencies or mentioned that these would be an advantage. Even in the hotel and

²⁵⁹ Cf. Nakamura 1996: 53; Ueda 1997: 53.

²⁶⁰ Cf. Nakamura 1996: 51-52; Holzer-Terada 1998: 20-25.

²⁶¹ Cf. Kimura 1989: 139; Ueda 1990: 142; Ammon 1991a: 496; Coulmas 1994: 73; Sugitani 1996: 217; Yoshijima 1996: 47; Timmermann 1999: 482-484.

²⁶² Cf. Schubert 1987: 70, 1989: 23; Dillmann 1989b: 217-218; Meuthen 1989: 43-46, 49-51; Ueda 1989: 34; Richter 1989: III; Schubert 1989: 22-23; Stuckenschmidt 1989: 13; Ueda & Takei 1994: 332-333; Coulmas 1994: 73; Yoshijima 1996: 46-47, 51; Christ-Kagoshima 1996: 73-77; Holzer-Terada 1998: 20-21.

restaurant industry and the tourism industry the need for German language competencies is negligible according to a study by Watanabe (1994: 163-173).²⁶³

Ammon (1992: 205- 212) describes the role and use of the German language in various sectors of Japan, including the presence of German loan words in Japanese, the use of German in medicine, law, tourism, music, advertising, for marketing and as product names. However, because of the relatively small usage of German (in comparison to English) and because most specialist literature in these fields is now produced in English, the medicine and law disciplines no longer use German, it is difficult to motivate students using these applications of the language as a motivating factor.²⁶⁴ Music students and musicians in Japan, who want to continue their studies in the reputable music academies of German-speaking Europe, are, however, able to make use of their language skills and are, therefore, more likely to be motivated to learn German (Ammon 1992: 210; Ziegler 1994: 68).²⁶⁵ While the reunification of Germany sparked renewed interest in the German language and culture, the trend does not appear to be ongoing (Slivensky 1995: 337; Mandelartz 1999: 6). Slivensky (1995: 337) says that it is no surprise that a modern Japan cannot function in the international sense without foreign languages and cultural skills, but that the preservation of the “klassischen Bildungsideals für die deutsche Sprache” (“the classical educational ideal of the German language”) is becoming increasingly difficult. Particularly as the government tends to promote only the learning of English.

The question of ***the perception students have of a particular foreign language*** has played a part in the development of Germanistik discipline in Japan. Takayama-Wichter (1989: 32-39) describes the historical change in the Japanese attitude towards the German language as having four phases:²⁶⁶

- Prior to the Meiji restoration: the study of Dutch was popular and German was beginning to be introduced;
- German as the language of academia and education: from 1861 through until 1945 as the relations between Prussia and later Germany and Japan increased steadily, German was regarded as ***the*** academic language;
- German as a language of education after WWII: English became the first foreign language taught in high schools under the new education system. German lost its status as the academic language but remained the second most taught foreign language, particularly within the *studium generale*; and

²⁶³ Cf. Mizuno 1966: 132; Krusche 1971: 247-248; Bauer 1989c: 210-219; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 37, 65-68; Watanabe 1989: 44-55; Ammon 1991a: 200-202, 498-499, 1991b, 1992: 209-210; Coulmas 1994: 71-80; Nakajima 1994: 252; Holzer 1996: 89; Timmermann 1999: 482-484; Günske von Kölln 2000: 101.

²⁶⁴ Cf. Asakura 1992: 34; Kakinuma 1994: 35-48; Mori 1994: 49-62; Sugitani 1995: 216-217; Holzer-Terada 1996: 120.

²⁶⁵ Cf. Beißwenger 2000: 77-81.

²⁶⁶ Cf. Krusche 1971: 247-249; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 76-80; Ueda 1990: 144-148; Ammon 1991a: 496.

- German today: German is not regarded as a practical language as opposed to English. This is partly because of the dominance of the written and literary word and the lack of emphasis on communication skills in German programmes.

Despite this, the average Japanese lecturer would not question the reason for or relevance of learning German according to Kutsuwada *et al.* (1987: 75), because:

Deutschunterricht ist für ihn ein unentbehrlicher Bestandteil des Universitätsbetriebs, eine *conditio sine qua non*; Deutsch gehört einfach zu einem Campus wie Luft und Wasser zu einem Lebewesen.

However, although German remains the second most often learnt foreign language, it is regarded by some as being outdated (as compared with French and Chinese) and more difficult (as compared with Chinese). In fact, the image of German in Japan continues to be influenced by the historical development of German and other foreign languages in Japan and dominated by stereotypes. For many Japanese the German language is almost automatically associated with beer, wine, Beethoven, Mozart, Schubert, Kant, Schopenhauer, Hegel, Marx, Volkswagen, Autobahn, and Hitler, for instance (Ueda 1997: 51).

Institutional factors impacting on the teaching and learning environment of foreign languages, including German, at both the secondary and tertiary levels in Japan include:²⁶⁷

- Large class sizes (with a minimum of 40 to 50 students and sometimes as many as 200 students in a class);
- The lecture theatre-like rooms that do not allow students to interact with each other;
- The focus on written skills, grammar and translation;²⁶⁸
- The grammar-translation method of teaching and the primarily reception-oriented (or passive) method of learning foreign languages in Japan;²⁶⁹
- The small number of teaching hours allocated per week;
- The lack of prior knowledge of foreign languages (with the exception of English) that high school graduates possess given the fact that children only begin to learn English at the age of 12 and other foreign languages at high school or (more usual) at university;
- The inadequate textbooks and other teaching materials;
- The fact that teachers and lecturers often have several part-time positions at different universities, language schools and high schools, and many have numerous

²⁶⁷ Cf. Vorderwülbecke & Stickel 1972: 35-37; Tanaka 1972: 43-49; Stickel 1973: 10-16; Ezawa 1975: 273; Haasch 1976: 118-120; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 75-80; Schubert 1987: 70-71; Brenn 1989a: 187; Dillmann 1989a: 113-129, 212; Iijima 1989: 85-89; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 27, 36, 47-49, 51-60, 64-65; Ueda 1990: 141-143; Ammon 1991a: 496-498, 1992: 213; Ehlers 1991b; Schubert 1991: 36-38; Asakura 1992: 33-37; Kusune 1992: 184; Yamaji 1994: 231-233; Ueda & Takei 1994: 332-333; Slivensky 1995: 337-339; Sugitani 1995: 215-220; Holzer 1996: 89; Reinelt 1996: 80-81; Kawashina 1996: 146; Takei 1996: 126-128; Nakamura 1996: 44-45, 52-53; Okamura 1996: 120-121; Christ-Kagoshima 1996: 77; Schröder 1997: 167-168; Ueda 1997: 50-52, 54; Holzer-Terada 1998: 19-25; Boeckmann 1999: 849; Reinelt 1999: 919-922; Reichert 1999: 822-823; Kuriyama 1999: 877; Oswald 1999: 90; Tabata 1999: 886; Kondo & Yamamoto 1999; Günske von Köln 2000: 101; Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 167-171.

²⁶⁸ Cf. Ezawa 1975: 274-275; Haasch 1976: 119-120; Tsuji 1978: 37.

²⁶⁹ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 42; Ueda 1989: 31-32; Ammon & Michels 1994b: 26; Tomoda 2000: 130-152.

administrative duties. Other Germanisten work as journalists and translators, are authors in their own right or are active in the theatre or in political circles;²⁷⁰

- The lack of individual and independent learning and of clear, concise teaching and learning objectives;
- The often uncoordinated addition of classes with native German-speaking *LektorInnen*; and
- The relatively small number of native speakers employed as language teachers.

One crucial institutional factor that impacts on the discipline is that the position of German is greatly dependent on the subjects required for the entrance examinations (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 26-27). If a university were to remove German from the list of required subjects, the learning of German would become unnecessary. If on the other hand German remains one of the possible subjects, then the structure of the entrance examination has a major impact on how the subject is taught. Asakura (1992: 24-25) describes the entrance examination as the biggest problem for pupils learning foreign languages in schools:²⁷¹

Sie lernen eine Fremdsprache nicht zu praktischen Zwecken, sondern um die Fragen in der Aufnahmeprüfung (meistens schriftliche Übersetzungen und Grammatik und nicht die mündliche Konversation) richtig zu lösen.

The examination process demands that candidates understand the grammar of the language in question and have the ability to translate texts from the original into Japanese. Speaking and listening comprehension are not required nor tested. Teachers are, therefore, forced to prepare their students for the requirements of the examination(s).²⁷² Many textbooks and teaching materials are written to meet the requirements of the entrance examinations and are, therefore, unsuitable for teaching students to communicate competently. Textbooks must be authorised by the Ministry and the process of authorisation is so complex that teachers and lecturers are discouraged from producing (more) suitable textbooks (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 60; Itoi 1994: 217; Slivensky 1995: 352-354).

According to Slivensky (1995: 339-341), the emphasis on grammar and the translation of literary texts is evident in the textbooks produced by Japanese publishing houses: grammatical textbooks, textbooks containing both grammar and literary texts and textbooks containing literary texts.²⁷³ Her study shows that many teachers believe that the grammar rules can be learnt using these textbooks but that the students do not learn to apply these rules to sentence building, particularly when the examples or exercises given in the textbooks use sentences from *Faust*! Nakagawa (1999: 913-916) found that students describe Germanistik programmes and the learning of German using three key terms: grammar, vocabulary and translation.

²⁷⁰ Cf. Koshina 1988: 28-30; 1990 25-26; Stuckenschmidt 1989: 14-16; Itoi 1994: 217-218; Nakajima 1994: 251; Rösler, Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 17; Rösler & Reinelt 2000: 239.

²⁷¹ Cf. Itoi 1994: 218-219.

²⁷² Cf. Nakamura 1996: 47-48; Tomoda 2000: 141-143.

²⁷³ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 46-47.

The fact that there is clearly an emphasis on primarily literary (and secondly linguistics) studies in Japan can be partly attributed to the fact that most German language teachers are not trained in teaching methodology despite the majority teaching language courses. Very few Japanese educational institutions offer programmes in foreign language teaching methodologies (apart from those training English teachers). German teachers are essentially trained as Germanisten in German programmes that only offer courses in German literature, linguistics and literary history so have had no opportunity to study didactics (Sugitani 1995: 219).²⁷⁴

Die heutige Praxis der japanischen Germanistik, die de facto Deutschlehrer ausbildet, bietet ausschließlich deutsche Literatur- und Sprachwissenschaft und –geschichte. Im Magister- und Doktorkurs werden kaum pädagogische, sprach- und lernpsychologische Theorien behandelt. Praxisbezogene Lehrproben sind nicht einmal vorgesehen. Bei der Berufung eines Lehrers an eine Universität wird kaum nach der didaktischen Fähig- und Fertigkeiten gefragt, obwohl sie in den meisten Fällen Deutsch für Nicht-Germanisten unterrichten.

Staff can choose whether or not to take additional courses in foreign language didactics or to attend the further education seminars facilitated by the *Goethe-Institut* and the *DAAD*, for instance, and according to Slivensky (1995: 338), the language abilities of the younger academics are improving as an increasing number are participating in study trips to German-speaking countries.

Sugitani (1995: 217-218) contends that the commonly used grammar–translation method of teaching German clashes with many pupils' wish to learn to communicate in German as well as with the social and political demands for internationalisation, which requires foreign language competencies.²⁷⁵ Foreign language courses usually involve grammar exercises, so-called conversation lessons, which are often simply exercises in repeating sentences after the lecturer,²⁷⁶ and literary courses that are taught in Japanese. The traditional focus of foreign language learning on translation is one of the distinct characteristics of foreign language teaching in Japan (Ezawa 1975: 274-275; Haasch 1976: 119-120).²⁷⁷ Sugitani (1995: 217-218) argues that this constitutes a fundamental discrepancy between the teaching objectives of German courses in Japan and the learning objectives of the students and believes the (lack of) training of German teachers is a significant factor in the discrepancy between the teaching objectives and the resulting methodology.²⁷⁸

²⁷⁴ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 48-49; Haasch 1976: 118-120; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 79; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 49-50; Stuckenschmidt 1989: 15; Asakura 1992: 23, 34-35; Nakajima 1994: 250-252; Yamaji 1994: 229; Terada 1996: 106-107; Ueda 1997: 53; Holzer-Terada 1998: 21-23; Timmermann 1999: 482; Slivensky 1999: 817-818; Aizawa 1999: 141, 145-146; Hirataka 1999: 155-157; Richter 1999b: 110-111.

²⁷⁵ Cf. Haasch 1976: 118-120; Schubert 1987: 67; Kurosaki 1989: 261; Pekar 1996: 178-179; Terada 1996: 107; Zemsauer 1999.

²⁷⁶ The increased number of native German speakers teaching at Japanese universities during the past two decades has helped to improve these conversational courses.

²⁷⁷ During the Meiji period the translation of European literature (of all kinds) was very important for the development of the modern Japan. Translations from German originals ranked number three. Today German is the fourth most translated language in Japan behind English, Chinese and Russian (Yamashita 1994: 83-102).

²⁷⁸ Cf. Richter 1999b: 109-110; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 27-28; Sugitani 2000: 107-109.

Lehrziele des DU werden zwar meistens nicht explizit genannt, sind jedoch in der Tradition seit der Meijizeit (seit der Öffnung des Landes 1868) und nach dem klassischen Bildungsbegriff das Lesen von Fach- und klassisch-literarischen Texten [...] Die Lernziele der Studenten dagegen liegen aufgrund der [...] allgemeinen Internationalisierung in der Förderung der Fähigkeit zur „mündlichen Kommunikation“, genauer der „interkulturellen Handlungskompetenz“.

Although there have been various attempts (by individual teachers, departments and institutions) to improve the German programmes, there are two extremes of teaching methods in Japan. One extreme is the 'traditional' teacher-oriented method of teaching grammar and of translating challenging texts (dictionary in hand) sentence by sentence. The other is the use of methodologies introduced by native German-speaking staff, often without much regard for the unique parameters of the discipline in Japan (Nakamura 1996: 52).²⁷⁹ Nakamura continues that there are now a number of textbooks, which have adapted these methodologies to suit the Japanese students, but the number of teaching hours remains too few for the communicative teaching methods to be completely successful.

The linguistic differences between Japanese and German are another factor. These include the difference in the use of personal pronouns and verbs in Japanese, which means that the emphasis on translation in German lessons is often frustrating as the two languages cannot simply be directly translated.²⁸⁰

Some **cultural and social factors** appear to impact more on the teaching and learning of foreign languages in Japan than on other subjects.²⁸¹ It is particularly crucial for the native German-speaking lecturers to understand and take account of these factors in planning and delivering courses.²⁸² Modern language teaching stresses, for instance, the need for interactive communication. However, this is difficult in Japan given the tendency of Japanese students not to participate in discussions. Other such characteristics include:

- Japanese students are not able to express their own opinions in public;
- They will often give a vague answer to questions.
- They are incompetent in spontaneous discussion. However, when they are aware of the exact topic of discussion and have had time to discuss it amongst themselves, they can participate fully in the discussion;
- They are afraid of losing face so do not dare to express their own opinion;
- They do not critically analyse issues; and
- They tend to focus on the principle of seniority, whereby one must afford the older person the utmost respect.

²⁷⁹ Cf. Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000.

²⁸⁰ Cf. Schnitzinger 1973: 9; Stickel 1973: 10-11, 1990; Zeydel 1973: 323; Ezawa 1975: 274-276, 1990; Tsuji 1978: 34-36, 1987: 135-136; Dillmann 1989a: 113-136; Takayama-Wichter 1989; Ueda 1991; Wienold 1990; Kawashima 1990; Bourstin 1990; Kosaka 1990; Wegener 1990; Harweg 1990; Lange 1996a; Schröder 1997: 169-170; Kamimura 1998; Werner 1999: 801-812; Alber 2000.

²⁸¹ Cf. Bornscheuer 1987: 19-22; Schubert 1987: 68-70; Kutsuwada 1989: 343-344; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 72-78, 108-117; Kusune 1992: 185-186; Slivensky 1995: 337-338; Holzer 1996: 89-92; Schröder 1997: 167.

²⁸² Cf. Hofmann 1992; Holzer 1996.

According to Takuma (1989: 37), Japanese students are not accustomed to working out their own timetable or to working independently and proactively, but rather to following a fixed timetable and directions. Takuma (1989: 38-39) also comments on the tendency to adapt their opinions and behaviour to that of those around them.²⁸³

Sie achten auf die Tendenzen und Neigungen ihrer Umgebung und passen sich ihr an. Dieses Phänomen ist deutlich z.B. im Kleidergeschmack, in der Auswahl der Bücher oder in der Freizeitgestaltung zu erkennen. Sie handeln nicht gerne allein auf sich gestellt und treten bevorzugt in der Gruppe auf.

Schnitzinger (1973: 8) describes this 'shyness' as the greatest impediment to the conversational classes and attributes the students' fear of making mistakes and consequently losing face in front of the others to the Zen Buddhist tradition of quiet observation rather than discussion. Others believe that the reticence of Japanese students to express themselves in a foreign language, even if they know the correct phraseology to use, is less a sign of their „natürlichen' Zurückhaltung als Ergebnis des in Schule und Universität eingeübten Unterrichtsverhaltens.“ (Stickel 1973: 15)²⁸⁴ Günske von Kölln (2000: 108-114) illustrates how the Japanese tend to avoid giving a clear 'no' answer (similar to the Chinese), saying that this is due to their cultural background of maintaining the unity and harmony within the group or community. Native German speakers on the other hand tend to give (and expect) direct answers.²⁸⁵

Takayama-Wichter (1989: 78-90) and Haasch (1976: 118-120) found that the Japanese attitude to the spoken language as opposed to the written word differs significantly to that of German speakers. The Japanese place more value on the written language because of its unchangeable nature. Historically the written word was more important given the Chinese, Confucian and Buddhist influences on Japanese society and education system. Zen-Buddhism, for instance, encourages the cultivation of silence. The Germans, however, tend to regard discussion and verbal communication (as well as the written word) as important. Ezawa (1975: 276-279) too contends that the fundamental difference between German and Japanese is the attitude towards language that each culture has.²⁸⁶

Linguistisch handelt es sich bei diesem Unterschied des Verhältnisses zur Sprache wiederum um einen Unterschied in der Sprachverwendung (*parole*), nicht im Sprachsystem (*langue*). Es geht hier um den Benutzer und die Benutzung der Sprache, nicht um die Sprache selbst. D.h., der Mißerfolg der Japaner im Deutschunterricht ist also teilweise darauf zurückzuführen, daß sie die deutsche Sprache grundsätzlich anders verwenden als die Deutschen.

Slivensky (1995: 336-337) found that, although it is generally thought there is not much emphasis on individuality but rather on "ein Paradigma von kultureller Homogenität und Gleichheit im Denken und Handeln" in Japan, there were significant differences between the

²⁸³ Cf. Schubert 1987: 68-70; Ikeda 1999: 18.

²⁸⁴ Cf. Noguchi 1989: 105-106; Aizawa 1999: 142-143; Mitschian 1999; Sugitani 2000: 95; Tomoda 2000: 133-135, 137-140.

²⁸⁵ Cf. Tsuji 1978: 35.

²⁸⁶ Cf. Krusche 1971: 253; Noguchi 1989; Schubert 1991: 40-41; Kusune 1992: 185-194; Menzel 1998: 165-166.

institutional and organisational parameters of German programmes.²⁸⁷ However, she also found that the integration of Confucian values into the Japanese social and educational structure has had (and continues to have) a great influence on the teaching and learning of German (and presumably other foreign languages) in Japan.²⁸⁸

Bornscheuer (1987: 19-24) describes some of the conflicts between these traditional values and ideals and the increasingly modern, western (often American²⁸⁹) influences in Japanese society. One example, which has consequences for the teaching of foreign languages, is the virtue of being silent and listening to the teacher or professor who is regarded as being the wise and expert one in his or her field. This results in little interpretative discussion of German or other foreign language literature in university courses or elsewhere (Bornscheuer 1987: 23-24). Krusche (1971: 251-252) describes some of the problems faced when teaching German literature to Japanese students, problems attributable to the different cultural and social backgrounds of the students.²⁹⁰ For example, due to the particular popularity of the literature of German Idealism in Japan, many students appear to understand and relate better to the relatively difficult works of Hofmannsthal than to the works of Brecht. Pekar (1996: 172-173) outlines how in recent years the place of literature in the Japanese society has become less central as modern technologies and demands increase. However, the Germanistik programmes have continued to focus on literature in their teaching programmes.

II.2.4 Germanistik and Innovative Developments in the Field of German Studies.

II.2.4.1 The development of the discipline.

German as a foreign language and Germanistik in Japan have been studied since the end of the 19th century. While German remains the second most commonly studied foreign language after English in Japan even today, the significance of the German language and culture has declined considerably. The discipline is in a period of transition, change and even 'crisis'.²⁹¹ Koshina (1988: 24-25) laments the stagnation and decline of the Germanistik discipline in recent years, saying students are no longer motivated to learn German and German research is no longer regarded favourably in Japanese society. He continues that foreign languages were an essential part of the general education of an academic. German was regarded as the number one academic and cultural language (Koshina 1988: 25).²⁹²

²⁸⁷ Cf. Schubert 1989: 28-29.

²⁸⁸ Cf. Haasch 1976: 118; Sugiyama 1996; Sugitani 1996.

²⁸⁹ Cf. Hirataka 1994: 198-199.

²⁹⁰ Cf. Feldt 1989: 55-69; Nitz 1999: 392-408.

²⁹¹ Cf. Ammon 1991a: 457-458, 1992: 204; Naka 1994: 244-247; Ikeda 1999: 17.

²⁹² Cf. Krusche 1971: 247-248; Koshina 1988: 25-26, 1990: 8-16, 41-42; Mishima 1990: 127, 133; Ammon 1992: 204-205; Beißwenger 1996: 13-14; Nakamura 1996: 51; Kloepper 2000a: 41-42; Mandelartz 1999: 6; Mandelartz & Yamamoto 1999: 10; Kamimura 1999.

Niemand zweifelte daran, daß für ein naturwissenschaftliches, vor allem medizinisches Studium das Erlernen der deutschen Sprache erforderlich sei. Früher wurden auch Standardwerke der deutschen Literatur und Philosophie von den Studenten aller Fakultäten, obwohl meistens in japanischer Sprache, gern gelesen wurden.

In 1890 the then ministry of education decided that English, French and German were officially to be taught in all faculties at the various higher education institutions. Until then German had been compulsory only in the medical faculties and English had been the language most often taught in other faculties. This policy resulted in a gradual increase in the number of German departments and students choosing to learn German and in the number of textbooks produced for teaching German (Koshina 1990: 12; Naka 1994: 244-247, 1998; Beißwenger 1996: 13-14).

Germanistik was an independent discipline in the imperial universities, the institutions that trained future German teachers and professors. To be a Germanist was to be highly regarded in social and political circles. Because of this the discipline was not always independent of external political influence, for instance, during the national socialist regime in Germany (Koshina 1988: 26; Mishima 1990: 128-129).

The German department at the *Kaiserlichen Universität Tokio* was established in 1887 and two years later Karl Florenz began giving lectures in German literature. He was given the first chair of German in 1893 at the university although he was not actually trained as a Germanist but rather had gained his doctorate in Sanscript at Leipzig University and was primarily interested in comparative linguistics in his research (Kimura 1989: 147; Koshina 1990: 15-16).²⁹³ The university catalogue lists courses in Goethe and Schiller and occasionally other 18th and 19th century authors, such as Hebbel, Grillparzer, Lessing and Kleist (Kimura 1989: 149-150). Kutsuwada (1992b: 108-109) contends that the Japanese discipline simply accepted and implemented the classical literary canon of the German discipline at the time.²⁹⁴

According to Kutsuwada (1992b: 110), one indication of the canon followed by the Japanese Germanisten until the 1930s is the literary series, *Bibliothek der deutschen Literatur*, published in 1926 by Iwanami publishing house. The 14 volumes included works by Lessing (*Minna von Barnhelm*), Goethe (*Wilhelm Meisters Lehrjahre*), Schiller (*Die Jungfrau von Orleans*, *Don Carlos*, *Novellen*), Kleist (*Penthesilea*), Grillparzer (*Das goldene Vlies*, *Sappho*), Lenau (*Gedichte*), Hebbel (*Herodes und Mariamne*) and Otto Ludwig (*Der Erbförster*). In 1927 Iwanami began a series of relatively inexpensive translations of German (and other) works and academic papers (similar to the *Reclam* series). These became very popular and continue to be published. Of the 244 such editions (which covered some 58 German authors) 26 were by or about Th. Mann, 19 by or about Goethe, 14 by or about

²⁹³ Cf. Kutsuwada 1992a: 126; Naka 1998: 11; Kloeppfer 2000a: 41.

²⁹⁴ Cf. Mishima 1990: 128-129.

Keller, 10 by or about Nietzsche, and 9 each by or about HKM Grimm and Schiller (Kutsuwada 1992b: 114-115).²⁹⁵

Students read literary texts as part of the language classes and the advanced students had classes in translation. The teaching methods used were little more than translation classes (Kutsuwada 1992a: 127).²⁹⁶

genauer: grammatische Entzifferung anspruchsvoller literarischer Texte und ihre Übertragung ins Japanische. Interpretationsversuche, die die jungen Studierenden manchmal unternahmen, wurden fast ausnahmslos zurückgewiesen. – Es fehlt auch noch heute nicht an Gelegenheit, so etwas in den Seminaren zu erleben.

Mori Ôgai was one of the earliest Japanese Germanisten and was one of the most significant contributors in terms of research and translations to the discipline in the second half of the 19th century and the early part of the 20th. Although perhaps best known for his translations of *Faust*, he also translated Lessing's *Emilia Galotti*, Hoffmann's *Das Fräulein von Scuderi*, Kleist's *Das Erdbeben in Chili* and *Die Verlobung auf St. Domingo* and other works by Goethe, Rilke, Hofmannsthal, Wedekind and Altenberg. In addition he wrote numerous poems, novella, historical dramas and academic papers about German literature (Kimura 1993: 945-958). As the majority of German literature was (and is) studied and researched in translation in Japan, the work of such translators was vital and an abundance of translations from German into Japanese exists. Koshina (1988: 28-30; 1990 25-26) outlines the significant translation work that has been and continues to be carried out by Germanisten (1988: 29).²⁹⁷

[D]ie Übersetzungsarbeit [gehört] zu den wichtigsten Leistungen der japanischen Germanisten. [...] Die Übersetzungskultur ist nun mal das Schicksal der Japaner. Man könnte dabei die Übersetzung wohl als notwendiges Übel bezeichnen. So kann man also in japanischer Sprache die übersetzten Werke der deutschen Literatur vom Mittelalter über die Weimarer Klassik bis zur Gegenwart lesen.

Germanistik research as such began in the 1920s, when German authors, such as Hofmannsthal, George, Hesse, Th. Mann and Rilke, began to be studied. Th. Mann, for instance, was regarded as one of the greatest teachers of humanity and his works as the most significant inventory of European culture in Japan (Suzaki 1991: 247). Previous to that (particularly between 1890 and 1905) authors and philosophers such as Lessing, Schiller, Goethe, Heine, Nietzsche, Schopenhauer and Hartmann had been introduced to the Japanese by academics such as Mori Ôgai, Ningetsu Ishibashi, Saishû Onoe, Seiu Hashimoto and Chogyû Takayama. Most of these academics were not Germanisten, but rather from other disciplines. However, by the early 1900s specialist Germanisten were beginning to graduate from the *Kaiserliche Universität*, including Chikufû Tobari and Teisuke Fujishiro (Kimura 1989: 147-148; Koshina 1990: 16-19; Kutsuwada 1992b: 105-108).

²⁹⁵ Cf. Kimura 1989: 148-149; Nitz 1991: 174-175; Miyashita 1998: 43.

²⁹⁶ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 42; Tsuji 1978: 37.

²⁹⁷ Cf. Tsuji 1978: 37, 1987: 131-136; Koshina 1988: 28-29; Kutsuwada 1989: 345; Nitz 1991: 174-175; Wakisaka 1993: 330-331; Naka 1998: 6-7; Kamimura 1998; Miyashita 1998: 36.

During the period 1905 to 1923 the Meiji era ended (1912) and under the new *Tenno* the European culture was represented in Japan in various exotic forms, including the decadence literature, socialist movements, Japanese Christianity, modern coffee houses and cabaret (Koshina 1990: 19-20). Fujishiro, for instance, had been exposed to the works of Hauptmann during his studies in Berlin and wrote about these. Others, including Mori, Mokichi Saitô and Koson Katayama, wrote about and translated the works of Dehmel, Schnitzler, Rilke, Bahr, Scholz, Schmidtbonn, Hofmannsthal, Sudermann, Wedekind and Dörmann, thus broadening the range of authors and works Germanistik students were taught about. Goethe and Schiller continued to be significant and various publications about and translation of their works were produced by Mori, including translations of *Faust* and *Wilhelm Tell* and *Die Jungfrau von Orleans*. The emphasis of literature courses and research during this period was primarily on the drama genre (Bornscheuer 1991: 328-335; Koshina 1990: 20-26; Sakai 1991: 321-327). Kutsuwada (1992a: 128-129) describes the Japanese Germanistik discipline as being in a student-teacher relationship with the discipline in Germany until the 1920s.

1907 was a significant year in the development of Japanese Germanistik as the German department at the *Kaiserliche Universität Kyoto* was established and Fujishiro became the first professor of Germanistik there (Kimura 1989: 147-148; Koshina 1990: 25; Kloepper 2000a: 41). The same year Seiji Ueda became the first Japanese professor of German at the *Kaiserliche Universität* in Tokyo. Koshina (1990: 25) describes 1907 as being:

ein epochemachender Zeitpunkt für die Geschichte der japanischen Germanistik. Forschung und Lehre des Faches wurde von nun an überwiegend von Japanern getragen. Sowohl Fujishiro in Kyoto als auch Ueda in Tokyo legten das Schwergewicht auf Goethe, Schiller, Lessing und insbesondere auf die dramatische Gattung. Abgesehen von den Dramen der eben angegebenen Klassiker behandelten sie Dramen von Heinrich von Kleist, Friedrich Hebbel und Gerhart Hauptmann.

The practice of teaching the traditional Germanistik canon continued as the discipline expanded as most Japanese Germanisten employed in the new departments were graduates of the departments in Tokyo and Kyoto (Kimura 1989: 150).

The great earthquake in 1923 signalled the end of this period of liberalism in Japan, replaced instead by strict conservatism. The new government believed that Nietzsche, for instance, was a subversive influence and his works were banned (Koshina 1990: 19-20; 28-29). Despite the increased pressure of military-like rule, relations between Germany and Japan continued to develop with the establishment, for instance, of the *Deutsch-Japanische Gesellschaft* in the late 1920s and the 1927 establishment of the *Deutsch-Japanische Kulturinstitut* in Tokyo. Germanistik as a discipline had its heyday from the mid 1920s to the mid 1930s (Koshina 1990: 30-36). Publishing houses produced an increasing number of publications of the works of German authors from Goethe to Hebbel. Many German-

speaking professors and teachers were brought to Japan by the new government after WWI and they brought with them the latest information about the teaching of literary studies (Kutsuwada 1992a: 128). One of the most influential Japanese figures in the discipline during the first half of the 20th century was Kinji Kimura, whose research focused primarily on the work of Goethe and who (Koshina 1990: 34):

regte [...] seine jüngeren Kollegen und Studenten an, daß jeder Aktuelles in der deutschen Literatur und Literaturwissenschaft erfahren und daß jeder seine eigenen Meinungen der Kritik der anderen aussetzen sollte.

Linguistics also became an integral part of the discipline in the 1930s with academics such as Morio Sagara and Hisashi Katayama leading the way (Shioya 1977: 256-258).

During WWII the influence of the national socialist literature and propaganda is evident although Germanisten such as Kimura attempted to distance themselves from these pressures and influences (Koshina 1988: 26, 1990: 35-36; Kutsuwada 1992a: 130-131; Yoh 1999).²⁹⁸ After the war the discipline took a different approach (at least externally), with an emphasis on the works of Brecht, Seghers, Zweig, Lukács, Hesse, Carossa, Rilke and Th. Mann, for example (Koshina 1988: 27, 1990: 36-37; Kutsuwada 1992a: 131-132). The *Japanische Gesellschaft für Germanistik (JGG)* was (re)established and continues to promote relations between the Japanese discipline and the discipline in the German-speaking countries today. The linguistics topics researched and studied in Japan continued to diversify and a relatively high number of linguistic publications were produced (Shioya 1977: 259). This diversification in the discipline occurred at the same time as the dramatic changes in the orientation of Japanese society and political relations (Ammon 1992: 205). However, Koshina (1988: 27) and Klopfer (2000a: 43) question how much the discipline actually changed internally as teaching methods remained authoritarian and continued to focus on grammar and the translation of German literature despite the restructuring of the institutional parameters at the end of WWII.²⁹⁹

The *JGG* has maintained a bibliography of all research submitted by members for publication since 1957. This bibliography and *Doitsu Bungaku* (the association's journal) reflect the overall trends in Germanistik literary and linguistic research and increasingly *DaF* research in Japan, as does the diverse array of seminars and conferences held annually.³⁰⁰ During the first half of the 20th century the most often researched authors included Goethe, Th. Mann, Hölderlin, Schiller, Rilke, Kafka, Kleist, Heine, Herder, Hesse, Lessing, Nietzsche, Brecht, Trakl and Grillparzer. Others researched included Hebbel, Hofmannsthal, von Eschenbach, Büchner, Hauptmann, Hoffmann, Benn, Böll, Fontane, Seghers, Dürrenmatt, von Straßburg, H. Mann, Storm, Bachmann, Grass, Kirsch, Rinser and Zweig.³⁰¹

²⁹⁸ Cf. Oguri 1998; Seki 1998.

²⁹⁹ Cf. Oguri 1998.

³⁰⁰ Cf. Haasch 1975: 230-233, Mizuno 1966: 133; Kimura 1989: 143-145, 152-154; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 4-14; Schröder 1997: 168; Klopfer 2000a: 43-49.

³⁰¹ Cf. Mizuno 1966: 133; Tsuji 1978: 37-40; Koshina 1988: 26-28; Kimura 1989: 141-142; Miyashita 1998: 43-45.

Before 1945 there were only a small number of translations of and academic works about the *Nibelungenlied*. In the 1950s and 1960s a number of works by von der Vogelweide and von Straßburg's *Tristan und Isolde* were translated and several academic publications about medieval literature were published. Since then the range of works translated, studied and researched has diversified to include epic poetry by authors such as von Eschenbach, von Aue and von Würzburg and works such as *Iwein*, *Der Arme Heinrich*, *Erec* and *Parzival* (Kurosaki 1987: 19-23).

German postwar literature, including authors such as Böll, Nossack, Eich, Grass and Enzensberger, was introduced to the discipline in the second half of the 1950s. However, Koshina (1990: 39-40) says that despite the fact that people could identify with the historical context, German postwar literature did not become very popular in Japan, probably because it was (according to Koshina) quite serious and self indulgent. Kafka's works, however, became very popular while Goethe continued to be a significant part of literary studies. Schiller, Hauptmann, Storm and Schnitzler declined in popularity after the war. Because of the still rather recent experiences under the national socialist influences, the Japanese discipline attempted during this period to establish its own identity rather than identify too closely with the discipline in Germany (Koshina 1990: 40; Maeda 1996: 90).³⁰² During the student unrest of the late 1960s, authors such as Enzensberger, Marcus, Benjamin, Adorno and Horkheimer became part of Germanistik literary studies. There was also renewed interest in Büchner and Hölderlin as "gescheiterte Revolutionäre" ("failed revolutionaries") and in authors such as Rilke, Benn, Takl and Kraus (Zeydel 1973: 324; Koshina 1990: 41).

During the second half of the 20th century the authors and topics researched have become increasingly diverse, although Goethe remains the most popular research subject, with Kafka, Th. Mann, Rilke, Heine, Nietzsche, Brecht, Hölderlin, Hesse, Schiller, Kleist, Musil, Stifter, Hofmannsthal, Büchner and Lessing the next most popular authors (Kimura 1989: 142-143; Nakajima 1994: 255). Research into and courses on the literature of the Middle Ages forms a relatively small part of German programmes in Japan. The literary translations, reviews and academic research papers published from the early 1980s through to the early 1990s depict the most popular German authors (Kimura 1989: 140-141; Nakajima 1994: 255).³⁰³ A study of the topics covered in Master's theses from 1982 to 1992 shows that Th. Mann, Goethe and Kafka remain the most often researched authors at this level with Brecht, Rilke, Benjamin, Adorno, Celan, Hölderlin and Hofmannsthal also in the top twenty.³⁰⁴

³⁰² Cf. Onuki 1998: 121.

³⁰³ For examples of literary topics researched in Japan or dealing with the Japanese reception of German literature, see Bornscheuer 1987, 1991; Kimura 1989: 152-154; Koshina 1990: 7-44; Mihm 1991; Noguchi 1991; Ehlers 1991a; Miyashita 1991; Suzaki 1991; Sakai 1991; Mommsen 1991; Nayhauss 1993b: 91-100; Kaji 1998; Slivensky 1999: 817; Klopfer 2000a: 45-46.

³⁰⁴ Cf. Mishima 1990: 131; Kutsuwada 1992b: 111-113; Nakajima 1994: 255-256.

During the past fifteen years Benjamin, Adorno, Bloch and Celan have also become important authors in Japanese Germanistik. The Romantic epoch is very popular and Goethe and Th. Mann continue to be widely read (Nayhauss 1993b: 97).³⁰⁵ Böll, Enzensberger, Lenz, Ch. Wolf and Müller continue to be translated, though only in very small numbers and Frisch is not popular in Japan at all. Nayhauss notes that many Japanese Germanisten now include literature from all the German-speaking countries in their research and teaching. Despite this the Germanistik discipline in Japan has not developed its own canon according to Kutsuwada (1992b: 111-113).

Before WWII linguistics was not a major component of the Germanistik programmes in Japan. Professor Morio Sagra published a Japanese-German dictionary and a number of grammar books during the 1940s and early 1950s, so could be regarded as the founder of German linguistics in Japan (Noiri 1987: 29-30; Shioya 1977: 256-258).³⁰⁶ As a result of the expansion of the discipline parallel to the expansion of the tertiary education sector, the number of German linguists increased as did the research and the variety of topics researched. Noiri (1987: 30-31, 33b-33f) says that the number of articles on linguistic topics published in *Doitsu-Bungaku* (although small relative to the number of literary articles) is evidence of this. In addition, several special issues devoted entirely to linguistic topics have been published. The *Energieia* journal of the *Arbeitskreis für deutsche Grammatik* is almost entirely devoted to linguistic topics (Noiri 1987: 31, 33g-33i). Since 1972 the *Japanischer Deutschlehrer Verband (JDLV)*, a subsidiary of the *JGG*, has hosted linguistic seminars annually and the themes of these seminars have tended to reflect the current linguistic trends at the time (Noiri 1987: 32-33; 33a; Kimura 1989: 141; 154). Noiri (1987: 31-32) believes that the development of German linguistics in Japan has reflected the development of linguistics in Germany itself, as the Japanese linguists have tended to follow or at least take into account the research trends of their German-speaking counterparts.

Nakajima (1994: 256) lists the most often researched linguistic areas as being:³⁰⁷

- Semantics;
- Language and literature didactics/*Landeskunde*/German language lessons;
- Contrastive linguistics/the Japanese language;
- Syntax;
- General linguistics/language theories;
- Middle High German/Middle Low German;
- German linguistics/grammar;
- Old Germanic languages/Old High German;

³⁰⁵ Cf. Kimura 1989: 141, 147-150; Kloepper 2000a: 43-44.

³⁰⁶ Cf. Kamimura 1998.

³⁰⁷ For examples of linguistics topics researched in Japan, see also Zeydel 1973: 323; Shioya 1977; Dillmann 1989a: 113-136; Kimura 1989; Takayama-Wichter 1989; Ueda 1991; Stickel 1973: 10-11, 1990; Wienold 1990; Kawashima 1990; Bourstin 1990; Kosaka 1990; Wegener 1990; Harweg 1990; Ezawa 1990; Werner 1999: 801-812; Kloepper 2000a: 47-48.

- Technical data processing/Contemporary language use;
- Early New High German;
- Morphology; and
- Textual linguistics/stylistics.

Although *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (DaF) remains a relatively small part of Germanistik research in Japan, it is increasingly recognised as an integral part of the discipline.³⁰⁸ Research published in recent publications, such as Kondo and Yamamoto's study, '*Die Meinungen der japanischen DeutschlehrerInnen zu Deutsch als Fremdsprache – Was sie denken und was zu machen ist*' which appeared in *Deutschunterricht in Japan* (1999) and the JGG's 1999 conference proceedings *Schwellenüberschreitungen*, are evidence of the increasing interest and research in DaF.³⁰⁹

Stuckenschmidt (1989: 17-18) claims the academic standard of Germanistik in Japan today is much higher and the discipline more diverse than before WWII.³¹⁰ One reason for this is the increasing number of teaching staff and students who have participated in international exchanges or studied in German-speaking countries. Another reason is the increasing number of native German-speaking staff teaching in Japan both short and long-term.

Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 10) maintain that despite the drastic changes in the status and relevance of German in Japan and in the education system, there are a number of faculties in which more professors of German teach than professors of Romance languages and a similar number to the professors teaching English or American Studies. However, at many universities, including the University of Tokyo, the number of students learning German has declined by 30 percent in favour of those learning Chinese during the past ten years, while demand for French has remained relatively static. English has become the language of academia and education and the role of German in the law and medical professions has reduced dramatically. Before the reunification of Germany, there was a marked decline over a period of years in the demand for German, which resulted in many retiring professors' positions not being re-advertised (Mori 1994: 59-61; Yoshijima 1996: 49-51; Toyama 1997: 50). The reunification sparked an increase in interest and demand, but this has declined again since the euphoria has subsided. Yoshijima (1996: 49-51) says that this downward trend is also evident in the declining number of students enrolling in the *Diplom für Deutsch in Japan (DDJ)* (a national examination introduced in 1992 and facilitated by the German academic associations in Japan)³¹¹ and in the number sitting the translation certificate facilitated by the *Goethe-Institut*.

³⁰⁸ Cf. Rösler, Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 13.

³⁰⁹ Cf. Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 30-31; Japanische Gesellschaft für Germanistik 1999.

³¹⁰ Cf. Takahashi 1990: 65; Ammon 1991a: 459.

³¹¹ Cf. Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 180.

II.2.4.2 Germanistik versus German.

According to the JGG, the number of students learning German at university in Japan is approximately 500 000. Others estimate the number to be between 360 000 and 650 000 at circa 330 universities (from the circa 460 possible universities).³¹² There are, however, two facets of the discipline that are characteristic of German in Japan: (i) the core group of circa 30 Germanistik departments with circa 3000 students majoring in Germanistik, circa 300 students enrolled in Master's and doctoral level programmes and circa 100 permanent full professors, and (ii) the much larger group of circa 470 departments with numerous students and circa 2500 teaching staff in faculties of general education and other faculties.³¹³ There were also approximately 200 native speakers of German teaching in Japan in the 1990s. According to Takayama-Wichter (1989: 29), only approximately 50 of the possible 460 universities have a Germanistik department as such.³¹⁴ At the majority of the rest German is taught within the other faculties. Some private universities offer German within programmes such as 'Literature', 'European Literature', 'European Culture' or 'Linguistics' (Yamaji 1994: 223).

Stuckenschmidt (1989: 13, 19) and Yamaji (1994: 223) say that comparative to the total population of Japan (circa 118 000 000) and the total number of students at universities (circa 1 800 000), those majoring in Germanistik, and particularly those continuing on to (post)graduate study in the subject, form only a very small group as in the case of China. Takayama-Wichter (1989: 29) estimates that only 5 out of every 1000 Germanistik students continue onto graduate or postgraduate study in Japan.³¹⁵ And the number is declining relative to the increasing number of students attending university in Japan and those students choosing to learn an Asian language.

Although approximately 700 000 Japanese pupils and students learn German per year (through all the various courses available), only about 30 000 Japanese (or 0.5 percent) actually have good or excellent German language competencies and or experience of living in Germany (Stuckenschmidt 1989: 13, 19). Stuckenschmidt argues that this is because the structural framework of the four-year B.A. essentially means that academic research is carried out only at the Master's and doctoral level and because most students have to learn the basics of the language in the first two years of study.

Due to this structural dichotomy, the subject area, German, is divided into the departments, in which the language courses are taught almost exclusively within the framework of the *studium generale* and the Germanistik departments in the Humanities faculties, in which the

³¹² Cf. Kimura 1989: 139; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 28; Richter 1989: III; Ammon 1991a: 458-459; Yamaji 1994: 221-222; Holzer-Terada 1998: 15.

³¹³ Cf. Stuckenschmidt 1989: 14-16; Ueda 1990: 142-143; Ammon 1991a: 459.

³¹⁴ Ueda (1990: 142) put the number at 59, while Kimura (1989: 139) says that 60 universities (both state and private) have Germanistik departments.

³¹⁵ Cf. Mandelartz 1999: 6.

specialist literature and linguistic courses are taught. In this way there is both a physical and theoretical division of the two parts of the subject (Dillmann 1989b: 217).³¹⁶

Diese jeweils zwei Fachinstitutionen des – aus deutscher Perspektive – einen Fachbereichs [...] unterscheiden sich dementsprechend nicht nur inhaltlich deutlich hinsichtlich ihrer Lehr- und Ausbildungsfunktion, sondern sind auch äußerlich getrennte, voneinander völlig unabhängige Fachinstitutionen mit je eigenem Personal, Ausstattung, Räumlichkeiten, Bibliotheken, nicht selten sogar auf getrenntem Campus.

Tsuji (1989: 14) describes the effect of this divided system on the discipline:

Ich gehe vereinfachend davon aus, daß der Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache in Japan quantitativ enorm breit und qualitativ enorm seicht ist. Ursache dafür ist das fest etablierte System des Studium Generale an den japanischen Hochschulen. Es leidet sehr unter dem erstaunlich niedrigen Niveau sowohl der Lernenden als auch der Lehrenden.

The *Germanistik programme in the Philosophical or Humanities Faculties* is aimed at the specialist study of primarily literature and linguistics and can be taken as a major or supporting subject. After a further two years study students are normally required to present a written paper to complete the B.A. Most are required to specialise in a particular author, epoch or literary genre at a relatively early stage of their studies (Stickel 1973: 12). Ueda (1990: 142) describes the Germanistik discipline in Japan as:³¹⁷

eine japanische Variante der traditionellen Germanistik [...], nämlich eine immer noch tief in der methodischen Unschuld schlummernde, an eine soziale Relevanz nicht denkende und in der Regel als eine Art Autorenkult zu bezeichnende Germanistik, die im dritten und vierten Studienjahr von einer – allerdings immer mehr abnehmenden Zahl – von Studenten belegt wird.

According to Hieber (1989: 71-72), the 'traditional' Germanisten in Japan regard German language courses as the training ground for the translation of difficult literary philosophical texts. This has been the central goal of the discipline since the Meiji modernisation process with key ideals being a translation culture, the dominance of the written language and the assimilation of new academic ideas and technology through the German language. Pekar (1996: 172-173) adds that literature played a central role in the modernisation process and as a result became the central and dominant focus of the German programmes at universities. Wichmann (1989: 89-90) describes the importance of reading in Japan and says that this is a focal part of foreign language learning at all levels of study. Schubert (1987: 67) too describes the traditional goal of German in Japan.³¹⁸

³¹⁶ Because of the diversity of the tertiary education sector in Japan, particularly the large number of private universities, which are not subject to as high a degree of government control, it is difficult to generalise about the structure of the faculties and departments. However, there continues to be a general division between the general education and the specialist study in Japan (Tanaka 1972: 44; Niggstich 1982: 105; Dillmann 1989b: 217; Yoshijima 1996: 44-45; Yamaji 1994: 226-227).

³¹⁷ Cf. Sugitani 1995: 219.

³¹⁸ Cf. Krusche 1971: 250; Tanaka 1972: 42, 48-49; Stickel 1973: 12-13; Haasch 1975: 229, 1976: 118-120; Shioya 1977: 255; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 79; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 66-68; Stuckenschmidt 1989: 15; Ueda 1990: 143; Ammon 1992: 210; Asakura 1992: 34-35; Kutsuwada 1992b: 105-115; Nakajima 1994: 250-252; Yamaji 1994: 229; Sugitani 1995: 219; Nakamura 1996: 52; Tatsuo 1996: 105; Terada 1996: 106-107; Kaji 1998; Holzer-Terada 1998: 21-23; Slivensky 1999: 817-818; Timmermann 1999: 482-483; Aizawa 1999: 145-146; Hirataka 1999: 155-157.

Die japanischen Studenten sollen eine Einführung in die deutsche Sprache und das deutsche Denken erhalten, damit sie in die Lage versetzt werden, selbständig deutsche Literatur und vor allem auch Fachliteratur rezipieren zu können. Entsprechend dieser Begründung wird den Sprechfertigkeiten oft weniger Bedeutung zugemessen als der Förderung der Lesefertigkeit.

It would appear, however, that even this objective is not met given the conditions under which German is taught, such as too few teaching hours and the emphasis on grammar.

Students are not expected to speak in German as the classes are often taught in Japanese. Most literary papers are taught in Japanese using Japanese translations of the German originals. All examinations are written in Japanese. The written paper most final year students present is written in Japanese and most are on literary (and to a lesser extent linguistics) topics (Haasch 1976: 120; Nakajima 1994: 253). The number of courses, in which students can study other areas of Germanistik in the broader sense, such as German political, social and historical issues, remains relatively few (Nakajima 1994: 254-256).

Yoshijima (1996: 51-52) contends that the German language courses offered at universities (both within the Germanistik departments and the *studium generale*) do not allow those students who are interested in developing and furthering their communicative skills the opportunity to do so. These students are essentially forced to pay for private language tuition or courses at private language schools, the *Goethe-Institut* or other such institutions. Others continue their studies in Germany or participate in various extracurricular activities organised by the German department staff (Brenn 1989a: 187). These organisations have, therefore, become a vital factor in the delivery of German courses in Japan.

Those who wish to continue their studies are required to sit an examination before undertaking the two-year Master's programme, which includes a thesis. Most of those who enter the Master's programme want to become German lecturers, however, it is becoming increasingly difficult to obtain such a position. Since 1977 the JGG has collated the number of Master's theses completed each year at those universities, which offer graduate level programmes. In 1983 70 Master's theses were completed at 23 universities. In 1986 53 theses were completed at 22 universities. In 1987 the number of theses rose to 63 at 26 universities. In 1992 the number of theses completed was 49 at 27 universities. (Some variance in the number of universities is attributable to the fact that at some universities no theses were completed in any given year.) From this Nakajima (1994: 253-154) estimates about 30 universities offer Master's level courses and on average between 50 and 70 Japanese students graduate with a Master's in Germanistik annually.

Following the Master's degree, students can continue with a three-year doctoral programme (Richter 1989: III).³¹⁹

in dem weitere Erfahrungen in der wissenschaftlichen Arbeit gesammelt werden.
Am Ende des Kurses wird nicht immer der akademische Grad erworben.

One characteristic of the Master's and doctoral programmes, which is different from those in German-speaking countries, is that taught courses are offered (and are compulsory) for students in Japan.³²⁰ Not all Germanistik departments offer Masters and doctoral programmes as the departments must have the *Daigakuin* or the necessary accreditation or setup/procedures.³²¹ According to Ueda (1990: 142), 28 Germanistik departments offer Master's and doctoral programmes. The students undertaking these programmes are considered to be the 'true' Germanisten (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 29-30; Holzer-Terada 1998: 21).

In Japan it is not necessary to obtain a doctorate to be able to teach at universities as universities only require teaching staff to have a Master's (Nakajima 1994: 254). In addition, the fees for doctoral courses are relatively high (between DM 6000 to 7000 per annum) and the cost of living even higher. Those who continue onto doctoral study often give up their studies as soon as a teaching position becomes available. Particularly since the universities have started to reduce the available number of teaching positions due to the effects of the 1991 reforms of the tertiary education system.³²² Many teaching positions are no longer advertised as being permanent but rather as temporary part-time positions. The career prospects for Germanisten or German teachers are, therefore, becoming increasingly bleak (Ammon 1991a: 496, 1992: 214; Nakajima 1994: 254).

The teaching of ***German courses within the faculties of general education and other faculties*** forms the largest sector of German at the tertiary level in Japan. The primary role of Germanisten in these faculties is to teach language courses, despite their expertise in literature or linguistics. This division within the discipline has led to the German language teaching staff being regarded as lesser academics although they are often equally as involved in research and publishing.³²³

Despite the fact that the 1991 reforms abolished the division between the *studium generale* and specialist study, Holzer-Terada (1998: 18-19) and Yamaji (1994: 222-225) maintain that many universities still have the two separate teaching areas, most universities still require students to learn two foreign languages³²⁴ and the language courses are still considered to be less important than literary courses. There are normally between 50 to 60 students and

³¹⁹ Cf. Kimura 1989: 139; Ueda 1990: 142; Holzer-Terada 1998: 21.

³²⁰ This appears to be standard practice in the other Asian countries included in this study as well.

³²¹ Cf. Sugitani 2000: 97-99.

³²² Cf. Sugitani 2000: 102-105.

³²³ Cf. Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 79; Richter 1989: III; Kimura 1989: 139; Asakura 1992: 23; Yamaji 1994: 222; Nakajima 1994: 249-252; Mandelartz & Yamamoto 1999: 3.

³²⁴ Cf. Ammon 1991a: 496.

often as many as 100 students in each class (Mori 1989: 21). Kutsuwada, Mishima and Ueda (1987: 75-76) contend that Japanese students learn German grammar “vom ABC bis zum Konjunktiv” in their first year of study and in the second year are confronted with relatively challenging texts by Goethe, Th. Mann, Grass, Nietzsche, Jaspers, Weizsäcker and from magazines and papers such as *Spiegel*, *Die Zeit* and *Stern*.³²⁵ The change from learning grammar by rote to translating and deciphering literary texts is abrupt and discouraging for many students. Some teachers attempt to bridge this gap by selecting rather banal texts, but this too appears to discourage the students (Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 76). Consequently many students do not continue to study German after the first two years.

On average students receive one or two double teaching periods (90 minutes) per week over two academic years, although this varies considerably from university to university. Some departments intent on reforming the discipline through intensive courses, for instance, offer German for 90 minutes three or four times a week for a year.³²⁶ Others offer students German only once a week for one academic year (Tabata 1999: 886). Normally one of the teaching hours per week is allocated for the teaching of grammar, the other for reading and translation.³²⁷ These are usually taught by different staff, yet there is little cooperation or consultation as to the content taught or the methods or textbooks used.

Further complications occur because there is little if any cooperation between the Japanese and German teaching staff, which often results in grammar courses progressing at a different rate from the reading courses (Sugitani 1995: 217; Terada 1996: 106). Terada (1996: 107-108) outlines an example of a German programme for the initial two years of study (at Hokkaido University), whereby one quarter of the allotted two to six teaching hours per week is assigned to the native German-speaking staff in the third and fourth semesters for conversation, listening comprehension and free writing. The remaining three quarters of the allotted time is dedicated to the teaching of grammar rules and translation of texts.

Terada (1996: 107) describes the German-speaking staff as being one of the “Symbole der Internationalisierung der japanischen Bildungssysteme”.³²⁸ He says that many of them are trained as language teachers, which the Japanese Germanisten are not, but cooperation with their Japanese colleagues is rare:

Von den Muttersprachlern wird vielmehr meist erwartet, daß sie ihren Studenten erst nach dem von einem japanischen Kollegen geführten intensiven Grammatikkurs die sogenannten kommunikativen Fertigkeiten beibringen sollen, und zwar in einem Kurs, der nur einmal in der Woche ohne Zusammenarbeit mit ihren japanischen Kollegen stattfindet.

³²⁵ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 45-46; Stickel 1973: 11-12; Mori 1989: 21; Ehlers 1991b: 169; Yamaji 1994: 232-233; Aizawa 1996: 168; Terada 1996: 107.

³²⁶ Cf. Haasch 1976: 119; Brenn 1989b: 252; Kimura 1989: 139; Richter 1989: III; Ueda 1990: 141-142; Ammon 1992: 213; Slivensky 1995: 338; Sugitani 1995: 215.

³²⁷ Cf. Mori 1989: 21; Slivensky 1989: 338; Yamaji 1994: 232; Hänel 2000: 266.

³²⁸ Cf. Krusche 1971: 248; Rösler & Reinelt 2000.

Terada (1996: 107-108) notes that the German-speaking staff are dissatisfied with the lack of cooperation and the structure of the German programmes, while the Japanese Germanisten continue to perpetuate the traditional emphasis on grammar and reading and translation.³²⁹ Many native German-speaking staff do not learn much Japanese while teaching in Japan, so difficulties in communicating with colleagues and students and in researching the situation of German in Japan (by way of the available publications) often occur.³³⁰

Boeckmann (1999: 848-849) gives the example of a new foreign language assistant coming into the classroom in Japan with the idea of utilising the latest theories and methods of teaching, including interaction, discussion and communicative methods. But these methods fail to encourage the students to interact in class because of the different learning and teaching cultures in Japan. Students in Japan are used to listening to the lecturer and “Meinungsäußerungen, Begründungen und ähnliche offene Beiträge werden selten, wenn überhaupt, verlangt.” Although in smaller groups the students find it easier to express their opinions.³³¹ Schubert (1989: 22) says that the German-speaking lecturers must take into account the historical, political, social and ideological characteristics unique to the discipline in Japan in order to develop courses and methods that will help to improve the situation.

As previously mentioned, there are a relatively large number of Japanese learning German outside of the mainstream education system. For example, circa 400 000 to 600 000 participate in the radio and television courses and between 5000 to 6000 participate in the language courses offered by the *Goethe-Institut* each year.³³² A great majority of these are university students majoring in German who wish to better their ability to communicate in German. Many students at private universities (the more expensive universities) can afford to attend language courses outside of the university programmes. These are, however, expensive and may not exist at all in rural areas (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 67; Brenn 1989a: 187-188, 204-205; Kaufmann 1996: 58). These courses (particularly those offered by the *Goethe Institut*) have become an important, although not compulsory, component of the study of German at the tertiary level.

There are some private language schools where German is taught but little data is available on these.³³³ Stuckenschmidt (1989: 16, 19) estimates the number of Japanese learning German at language schools to be 1800. A survey by Noro (1994: 311-326) found that German is a relatively popular language to learn at the private language schools in Japan after French and alongside Chinese. (English was, of course, the most popular language.)

³²⁹ Cf. Krusche 1971: 250; Richter 1999b: 111-112; Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 170-171; Hänel 2000: 266.

³³⁰ Cf. Krusche 1971: 247-254; Tsuji 1978: 38; Dillmann 1989b: 212-213; Meuthen 1989: 46-48; Hofmann 1992: 57-58, 63-66; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 58-59; Klopfer 2000: 43-49; Rösler, Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 16; Rösler 2000: 67; Ishibe 2000: 156; Mielke 2000; Reinelt 2000.

³³¹ Cf. Hofmann 1992; Boeckmann 1999: 852.

³³² Cf. Stuckenschmidt 1989: 16, 19; Ammon 1991a: 498, 1992: 215; Ammon & Michels 1994: 26-27; Ueda & Takei 1994: 331-332; Okamura 1996: 119.

³³³ Cf. Hatori 1989: 129; Takayama-Wichter 1989.

The number of students learning German at such schools has increased slightly during the past decade, possibly due to the increased interest in foreign languages under the banner of 'internationalisation' generally and the demands of the economy for communication skills in foreign languages (Noro 1994: 324-326).

Radio and television foreign language programmes have a long history in Japan. German language programmes, for instance, have been taught via the Japan Broadcasting Corporation since 1926 (with a break from the beginning of WWII until 1952).³³⁴ The programmes are primarily aimed at teaching the basics of the German language and at raising the level of interest in Germany and its culture. In addition, programmes for more advanced learners are provided (Okamura 1990: 111-113). One advantage of these programmes (over those offered at universities) is that listeners are constantly listening to native German speakers.³³⁵

One indication of the scale of German in Japan is the number of academic associations and organisations. The largest of these is the *JGG* with circa 2600 members. The *JGG* organises seminars for those within the discipline twice a year and has also organised an annual linguistics conference since 1959 (Mizuno 1966: 133; Richter 1989: IV; Hayakawa 1994: 295).³³⁶ The association's journal *Doitsu Bungaku (Die Deutsche Literatur)* contains papers given at these conferences and is a good reflection of the research trends in Germanistik in Japan. Almost all of the articles published in this journal are in Japanese with some summarised in German. A bibliography of the majority of publications by Japanese Germanisten is maintained by the *JGG* and appears once a year in the journal (Koshina 1988: 27; Kimura 1989: 140; Klopfer 2000a: 45).³³⁷ Klopfer (2000a: 43) describes the association's 50-year history as one of:

kontinuierlichen und umfassenden philologischen Forschung zur deutschen Sprache und Literatur, die in allen drei Sparten dieser Wissenschaft – Ältere Philologie, Neuere Philologie, Linguistik – rege Aktivitäten, intensive Diskussionen und fundierte Ergebnisse ans Licht befördert.

The *Japanischer Deutschlehrerverband (JDLV)* is a subsidiary of the *JGG* (as most German teachers are also university lecturers) and promotes the research into the theories and practice of German language teaching and learning in Japan. To do this it supports research and study projects (such as the development of the minimum vocabulary list required of Japanese learners of German (Asakura 1992: 23)), publishes the journal *Doitsugo Kyoiku (Deutschunterricht in Japan)* and the *Berichte des Japanischen Deutschlehrerverbandes* and organises and facilitates conferences. In addition, it participates in projects organised by the

³³⁴ Cf. Aoki 1989: 70; Bauer 1989c: 213-214; Nitz 1991: 175; Hayakawa 1994: 295-296; Ueda & Takei 1994: 332-334.

³³⁵ Cf. Okamura 1990: 113-123, 1996: 121-132; Sekiguchi 1994: 301-309.

³³⁶ Cf. Haasch 1975: 229-233; Shioya 1977: 259; Noiri 1987: 31-33; Koshina 1988: 24, 26-27; Kimura 1989: 139-140; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 4-5; Koshina 1990: 38; Nakajima 1994: 251-252;

<http://wwwsoc.nacsis.ac.jp/jgg/index-d.html> (29 May 1998).

³³⁷ Cf. Tsuji 1978: 40-41.

International German Teacher Association (*Deutschunterricht* 1999: 214-215).³³⁸ Richter (1989: IV) estimates the number of members to be circa 600. The *JDLV* has carried out several surveys of the state of German in Japan during the past two decades, including one in 1992 and in 1997/1998 (Sambe 1999:36-49; Kondo and Yamamoto 1999: 50-78).

According to Hayakawa (1994: 295), there are circa 25 other academic associations in Japan including the *Japanische Gesellschaft für Deutschstudien* (founded in 1987 and dedicated to the development and promotion of interdisciplinary and international research into issues relating to Germany today) (Mishima 1990: 135), the *Gesellschaft für deutsche Kultur- und Sozialgeschichte* (Richter 1989: IV), and the *Gesellschaft zur Förderung der Germanistik, Tokio* (which awards financial support and scholarships to young Germanisten and promotes and supports the publication of research and the exchange of academics and students).³³⁹ The *Gesellschaft zur Förderung der Germanistik* introduced the *Diplom Deutsch in Japan (DDJ)* in 1992 as a way of ensuring that more students could obtain a nationally recognised certificate of attainment in German as many are too far from the places where the *Goethe-Institut's* *ZDaF* examinations are held (Hayakawa 1994: 296-299).

Several associations are dedicated to research into Goethe and his works. The *Goethe-Gesellschaft in Japan*, for instance, publishes the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* annually (Takahashi 1989: 66). A number of other associations, dedicated to authors such as Heine, Grimm, Hesse, Schiller and composers such as Wagner, exist as well (Hayakawa 1994: 295). The *Freunde von Weimar* association, which was dedicated to promoting relations between the GDR and Japan and to researching East German literature, was dissolved in 1991.³⁴⁰ However, the *Gesellschaft für die Erforschung der österreichischen Literatur* remains active in promoting contemporary Austrian literature and culture and since 1984 has produced an annual magazine, *Beiträge zur Österreichischen Literatur* (Kloepfer 2000a: 46). Another journal, *Energieia*, has been produced annually by the *Arbeitskreis für deutsche Grammatik* since the mid 1960s (Kloepfer 2000a: 47).³⁴¹

One of the most important organisations to offer German language courses and to promote relations between Japan and Germany since the 1950s is the *Goethe-Institut*, with its three branches in Tokyo, Osaka and Kyoto.³⁴² The work of these institutes is divided into three main sections: language courses (including international certificates of attainment and specialised courses in German music for Japanese music students³⁴³), the *Pädagogische Verbindungsarbeit* or continual support of the German teachers in schools, universities and adult education institutions (such as the *Deutsch-Japanische Sprachzentrum* in Sendai

³³⁸ Cf. Tanaka 1972: 49-50; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 5, 10; <http://wwwsoc.nacsis.ac.jp/jgg/kyoiku-bukai/index-dt.html> (16 June 2000).

³³⁹ Cf. Mizuno 1966: 133; Hayakawa 1994: 295.

³⁴⁰ Cf. Hosaka 1998.

³⁴¹ Cf. Noiri 1987: 30-33; Koshina 1988: 27; Kimura 1989: 140, 144; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 5.

³⁴² Cf. Takayama-Wichter 1989: 30; Aso, Graeb-Könneker & Soda 2000: 204; Kloepfer 2000b: 260-262.

³⁴³ Cf. Ziegler 1994: 68; Beißwenger 2000: 77-81.

(Bauer 1989b: 195)), and promotion of the German language and culture (Kaufmann 1994: 285-294, 1996: 53-61).³⁴⁴ Demand for the language courses offered by the institute increased by 28 percent between 1987 and 1991 (Booth-Whiting 1993: 251-252).

Together with the *JGG*, the *JDLV* and the *LektorInnen*, the *Goethe-Institut* offers German teachers and Germanisten three main kinds of seminars: seminars on the theoretical foundations of foreign language teaching (e.g. applied linguistics, motivation), information seminars that introduce teachers to new teaching materials, research trends and comparative Japanese-German area studies, and training seminars with teaching demonstrations and the analysis of lesson modules with clearly defined teaching and learning objectives (Kaufmann 1994: 291-292, 1996: 59). The *Goethe-Institut* in Tokyo has begun to recognise the importance of the work of the translators in translating contemporary German literature and to this end has started a series of seminars at which recent works and translations are introduced to interested parties (Kloepfer 2000a: 48-49).

Since 1978 the *DAAD* Tokyo has assisted and continues to assist in the organisation and financial support of various seminars and conferences in Japan.³⁴⁵ It also finances the *Lektoren-Rundbrief Japan*, which is contributed to, edited and produced by the *LektorInnen* in Japan.³⁴⁶

The diverse range of German-speaking staff (from the few permanent university lecturers through *LektorInnen* with fixed term contracts to part-time teachers) has made the establishment of an association of the German-speaking staff in Japan difficult.³⁴⁷ A number of developments that have been introduced to counter this, including the establishment of local networks in the regions, the half yearly day seminar for *LektorInnen* and the regular online *LektorInnen* newsletter, the 1996 launch of the homepage for *LektorInnen* on the web which aims to increase the cooperation and exchange of information between the foreign language staff in Japan,³⁴⁸ and the ongoing development of an online mailing list of German-speaking staff (Mandelartz 1998: 34-35). The latter two initiatives were instigated and continue to be facilitated, voluntarily, by a number of *LektorInnen* working in Japan. Particularly outside of the main centres the *LektorInnen* play a major role in developing networks and other initiatives.³⁴⁹ In addition, those *LektorInnen* in Japan cooperate and exchange information and experiences with their colleagues in Korea and elsewhere (Gad 1996a: 3).

³⁴⁴ Cf. Goethe-Institut 1998.

³⁴⁵ Cf. Brenn & Dillman 1989b: 7-9; Löhken 2000: 299-300.

³⁴⁶ Cf. <http://160.29.11.14/~oubei/mandel/lektoren/index.htm> (16 June 2000); Adelhoefer 1996a: 7.

³⁴⁷ Cf. Gad 1996b: 211-216; Wollert 1997b: 51; Mandelartz 1998: 34-35; Schmidt 1999: 48; Rösler, Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 11; Rösler & Reinelt 2000; Hänel 2000.

³⁴⁸ Cf. <http://160.29.11.14/~oubei/mandel/lektoren/index.htm> (16 June 2000).

³⁴⁹ Cf. Löhken 2000: 300-301; Aso, Graeb-Könneker & Soda 2000: 200-204; Hänel 2000.

Other German organisations represented in Japan include the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Natur- und Volkerkunde Ostasiens* (OAG), the German, Swiss and Austrian embassies, the *Deutsches Institut für Japanstudien* (DIJ), the *Deutsche Schule* in Tokyo/Yokohama and Kobe and the *Deutsche Industrie- und Handelskammer*.³⁵⁰ German foundations and organisations, such as the *Humboldt-Stiftung*, support and finance research, cooperative projects and exchanges of academics and students between Germany and Japan (Janetzke 1992: 11-12). The Asian Germanisten conference, *Schwellenüberschreitungen*, held at Fukuoka in August 1999 was funded by organisations including the DAAD, the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS), the *Deutschen Forschungsgemeinschaft* (DFG), the *Goethe-Institut*, the Cultural Foundation *Pro Helvetia* and the embassies of Austria and Switzerland. These international Germanistik conferences and seminars give the Japanese Germanisten the opportunity for international exchange of ideas and information, particularly with Japan's Asian neighbours.³⁵¹

II.2.4.3 Innovation and reorientation in the field of German during the past two decades.

Given the historical development and role of German in Japan and the changes in the structural and institutional parameters of the discipline, including changes in the international market (such as trade and political relations and the dominance of English), changes in the interests of Japanese students (away from the 'traditional' aspects of the subject to the applied aspects) and in the secondary and tertiary systems outlined in the previous sections, the challenge in recent years has been for the discipline to actively respond to these changes. Questions, such as how the subject can remain 'alive' and relevant given the changed and changing parameters, have become integral factors when developing German programmes in Japan.

Many describe the Germanistik discipline in Japan as being in a state of dramatic change or in a "tiefgreifenden Krise" ("far-reaching crisis") (Sugitani 1995: 228). Mori (1989: 18) and Nakamura (1996: 51-52) contend that many of the problems affecting the discipline were recognised two decades ago, but remain unaddressed today. The reforms introduced in 1991 have heightened these problems.³⁵² Sugitani argues that significant and systematic changes are needed in order to reorientate the discipline within the overall internationalisation process and to ensure the discipline is forward looking and proactive. Many within the discipline have called for improvements in the training of teachers, particularly in their ability to speak German and in the didactics and methodology of teaching German.³⁵³ One of the first steps Sugitani (1995: 228) suggests is the professionalisation of

³⁵⁰ Cf. Coulmas 1994: 74; <http://www.goethe.de/os/tok/dejpart2.htm> (16 June 2001); <http://160.29.11.14/~oubei/mandel/lektoren/institut.htm> (25 January 2000), Löhken 2000: 302-315; Aso, Graeb-Könneker & Soda 2000; Kaußen 2000; Klopfer 2000b: 262-263.

³⁵¹ Cf. Kimura 1989: 144; Richter 1989: IV; Koshina 1990: 38; Kohz 1996: 5; Menke & Nord 1997: 4-6; Wollert 1997b: 51; Klopfer 2000a: 44; Imada 1999: 79-86; Schmidt 1999: 47.

³⁵² Cf. Onuki 1998; Hosaka 1998; Mori 1998: 133-134.

³⁵³ Cf. Stickel 1973: 16-19; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 80-82; Brenn 1989a: 204-205, 261; Kusune 1992: 184; Schröder 1997: 168; Mori 1998: 140; Hirataka 1999: 157-160; Tomoda 2000: 143.

the German teacher training, including training in interdisciplinary teaching theories and the practical application of these.

The current situation offers a number of opportunities for change and diversification. Ikeda (1999: 23) argues that world trade, world travel, globalisation in general and the worldwide networking of information offer many opportunities to develop solutions to the hurdles faced by the discipline. These include the development of 'niche' markets, interdisciplinary programmes and research, an increase in the practical application of German programmes (through applied projects on contemporary German or European issues, for example), an increase in *LK* components with relevance to today's increasingly globalised world, and an emphasis on communicative skills in language courses.³⁵⁴ A focus on quality as opposed to quantity through well-designed curricula and programmes would increase the attractiveness and relevance of the discipline to students.

Bauer (1989c: 219) contends that German cannot remain a subject taught *en masse* given the changes in the Japanese education system, society and markets. He calls for a reorientation of the discipline towards quality programmes as opposed to quantity.³⁵⁵ Okamura (1996: 131-132) too calls for German courses to be developed that meet the demands of those students who want to be able to utilise their German in later life and careers:

Der Deutschunterricht soll sich "gesund" schrumpfen (wobei ich "gesund" nachdrücklich betonen möchte), und trotzdem dabei konkrete Ergebnisse vorzeigen können, (d.h. die Studenten, die motiviert Deutsch lernen, sollen in die Lage versetzt werden, wirklich Deutsch zu können.)

Richter (1999a: 763) suggests that integrated programmes are the way to reduce the German courses offered to the masses to a number of intensive courses offered to a smaller group of highly motivated students. He contends that the discipline must reorientate its thinking and discussion towards the opportunities that the changing times offer, rather than focus on the supposed crisis in Germanistik in Japan.³⁵⁶ Mori (1989: 23) believes that the future of the discipline depends on what use and objectives a second foreign language has in the mass tertiary institutions of today and what role German can play in that education system.³⁵⁷

There have been an increasing number of attempts and innovations aimed at reforming the German courses offered at universities and schools in Japan since the 1970s.³⁵⁸ Many of these have been introduced and attempted by lecturers frustrated at the seemingly

³⁵⁴ Cf. Mori 1998: 135-136; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 34-36; Sugitani 2000: 110-112.

³⁵⁵ Cf. Brenn 1989b: 253-255; Höhn 1996: 63; Mori 1998: 137-139.

³⁵⁶ Cf. Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 81-82; Reinelt 1996: 80-81.

³⁵⁷ Cf. Ueda and Takei 1994: 336.

³⁵⁸ Cf. Haasch 1976: 121-126; Ocmaj 1978: 20-27; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 79-80; Nakayama 1989: 140-147; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 61-62; Ueda 1990: 148-149; Asakura 1992: 35; Shitanda 1993: 713; Bräsel 1997: 99-113; Holzer-Terada 1998: 32-35; Mandelartz 1999: 7-8.

insurmountable problems and institutional constraints faced by the discipline. Most initiatives have been introduced only in the 1980s and 1990s as the awareness of the problems faced by the discipline has grown (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 61).

As in China, innovations within the discipline during the past two decades include:

- The structural redefinition of departments and the subject;
- The development of intercultural courses and programmes;
- The development of interdisciplinary courses and programmes; and
- The modernisation of language courses.

As a result of the restructuring of the Humanities disciplines at some Japanese universities, **some Germanistik departments have attempted to redefine their programmes as 'German Studies'** rather than as the traditional language and literature programmes.³⁵⁹

One of the largest German departments in Japan at Dokkyo University, for instance, now offers students three possible study programmes: the traditional literature, language and linguistics, or German art history and philosophy or German history, politics and sociology (Beißwenger 2000: 77-78).

Intercultural courses and programmes have begun to be developed in Japan during the past two decades. One such concept is formulated by Slivensky (1999: 818-820) who suggests the liberalisation of institutional structures and an open debate about the structure and profile of the discipline. She (1999: 819-820) says that:

so wie in allen anderen Wissenschaftsbereichen [...] gibt es ungeschriebene Strukturen, die menschliche Beziehungen und das Verhalten in Organisationen regulieren. Allerdings, eine Wissenschaft und in besonderem Maße eine Kulturwissenschaft wie die Germanistik steht in der Pflicht, diese Strukturen bewußt zu machen, sie zu reflektieren und sie auf ihre Zukunftsfähigkeit hin zu überprüfen.

The programmes offered at Tenri University (where the Foreign Languages Faculty was restructured into a Faculty for Intercultural Studies) are a further example of the development of intercultural courses. Four streams are offered within the German department (Wakisaka 2000: 124-125):

1. Alltagskultur [...]; 2. Sprachkultur [...]; 3. Deutsche Geschichte; 4. Deutsche Gesellschaft. Dementsprechend enthält nun jeder Studiengang fachdisziplinäre Seminare und Vorlesungen, während eine studiengangsübergreifende Vorlesung „Deutsche Kommunikation“ für Fachstudierende angeboten wird.

Many, including Ikeda (1999: 23), contend that one of the most important tasks of and opportunities for the Germanistik discipline in Japan is to facilitate the understanding of the German-speaking cultures in a deeper manner in order that the Japanese “[sich] selbst und Europa neu entdecken und damit im wahren Sinne Schwellen überschreiten [...] können.”³⁶⁰

³⁵⁹ Cf. Takahashi 1990: 65-66.

³⁶⁰ Cf. Watanabe 1989: 50; Kloepper 2000a: 51-52.

Toyama (1997: 50) describes how the teaching of modern literature (as opposed to the traditional literary canon taught in Japan) can be very productive and teach the students to compare the two cultures.³⁶¹ Toyama (1997: 53) contends that the problem of students' relatively low standard of German can be circumvented by selecting literary materials that contain a modern issue students are interested in. Texts by the contemporary German-speaking authors, such as Grass, Walser, Reich-Ranicki, Ossowski, Seligman and Honigsmann, are particularly suited as their works reflect German history.

Reichert (1999: 824) believes that the Germanistik discipline could and should teach the prerequisites for successful international relations (i.e. "Fremdsprachenkenntnisse, Kenntnisse der kulturellen Besonderheiten, Aufgeschlossenheit gegenüber anderen Denkweisen und Lebensanschauungen").³⁶²

Meiner Meinung nach sollte das Fach Deutsch als eines von vielen Fremdsprachenfächern den Studenten nicht nur Einblicke in die deutsche Gesellschaft verschaffen, sondern die Studenten zugleich in einen anderen Kulturkreis, den Europäischen, einführen.

To achieve this Reichert (1999: 824-826) lists nine aims intercultural courses should have:

- An understanding of culturally and socially determined patterns of behaviour (e.g. the importance of shaking hands as a greeting in Germany);
- An understanding of the interaction between language and social variables (e.g. what greetings one uses in formal and informal situations);
- An understanding of the conventions in everyday situations (e.g. meeting someone's gaze when shaking their hands);
- An understanding of the cultural connotations of words and phrases (e.g. the use and meaning of idioms or terms that might have another meaning in the other language);
- The ability to analyse statements about a society (e.g. smiling in Germany at strangers is rare, but in Japan one greets everyone with a smile);
- The ability to research topics independently;
- To have an interest in other cultures and a positive attitude towards foreign cultures;
- The ability to recognise the influences of other cultures on one's own culture; and
- An understanding of human similarities and the ability to resolve disputes peacefully.

To contend with the challenges faced by the discipline, Timmermann (1999: 484-487) suggests the inclusion of components of the Germanistik discipline in **interdisciplinary programmes** (such as European Studies) and the offering of degree programmes that include an applied component (such as a Germanistik programme that includes training in translation and interpretation). Slivensky (1999: 818-820) also suggests promoting

³⁶¹ Cf. Hieber 1991: 186.

³⁶² Cf. Ezawa 1975: 279; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 81-82; Brenn 1989a: 205; Feldt 1989: 154; Watanabe 1989: 54-55; Ueda 1990: 149-150; Kusune 1992: 183-185; Coulmas 1994: 71-72; Christ-Kagoshima 1996: 77; Nakamura 1996: 53; Reinelt 1996: 82-83; Takei 1996: 128; Sambe 1999: 49; Kloepper 2000a: 51-52; Wakisaka 2000: 121-122.

interdisciplinary programmes and research and reducing the competitive thinking between related disciplines.³⁶³ There is (and has been) much discussion of reform suggestions “die auf Interdisziplinarität und moderne Formen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts zielen” (Richter 1989: III-IV), particularly in the planning of curricula for the new departments, institutes and faculties established. Some of the leading universities have already introduced interdisciplinary German Cultural Studies or European Studies programmes and the DAAD has increased its support of specialist *LektorInnen* in Law and Social Sciences (Kloepfer 2000a: 52).

Sugitani (1995: 215-216) describes the introduction of ‘International Studies’ (comprising English conversation, *LK* and a second foreign language) as a subject in some high schools and the development of a model of ‘International Understanding’ for primary and middle schools as an indication of the increasing interest in foreign cultures in Japan. She argues that the development of such courses and the growing interest in foreign languages and foreign cultures reflects changes in the social and economic environment of Japan through the internationalisation process. As an example Sugitani (1995: 216) cites the fact that one third of the 1099 Japanese joint ventures or trade representations in Germany were established after 1989.

Reinelt (1999: 919-922) believes that the relevance of German (particularly in combination with subjects such as medicine) should be promoted, and that cooperation with other foreign languages would be one way of improving the content and structure of the discipline in Japan.³⁶⁴ Richter (1999a: 756-757) argues that the opportunities for German lie in identifying the areas where German remains an important language in Japan and developing interdisciplinary programmes that target these areas, such as the Keio University model for students of Law and Social Sciences.³⁶⁵ Richter believes that the Germanistik discipline could have a bridging function between the two cultures (similar to that in China) by increasing and promoting the number of exchanges and study trips, contact with native speakers and German organisations, amongst other things.³⁶⁶ Study trips, which until recently were mainly privately funded, are increasing in popularity and are becoming regarded as an integral part of the study of German. As a result government or university funding of these is increasing.³⁶⁷

³⁶³ Cf. Reinelt 1999: 920; Rösler, Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 19-20; Sugitani 2000: 110-112.

³⁶⁴ Cf. Tsuji 1987: 138; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 81-82; Aizawa 1996: 166-168; Hirataka 1999: 157-160.

³⁶⁵ Cf. Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 81-82; Ueda 1989: 35; Bauer 1989a: 193, 200; Mishima 1990: 134-139; Ueda 1990: 149-150; Sambe 1996; Sugitani 1996: 119, 126-127; Timmermann 1999: 484-486; Richter 2000.

³⁶⁶ Feldt (1989: 154) describes this bridging function, saying that:
eine Fremdsprache nicht allein als Fremdsprache gelernt wird, sondern daß sie als Vehikel verstanden wird, andere Kulturen kennenzulernen, sich mit anderen Verhaltensweisen, anderen Denkweisen und Lebensgewohnheiten vertraut zu machen.

³⁶⁷ Cf. Nakayama 1989: 144-145; Höhn 1996: 169; Grünewald 1999a; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 33; Sugitani 2000: 110-112.

Sambe (1996: 197-206) describes the development and concept of the German programme for students majoring in Law or Political Science in the Law Faculty at Keio University, an example many other Japanese universities are beginning to follow.³⁶⁸ This was introduced after the effects of the 1991 reforms and the curriculum changes in 1993 at Keio University itself began to become evident. The new programme comprises the major subject (Law or Political Science), foreign languages, Humanities and Social Science subjects and a number of papers, which the students choose themselves (including foreign languages, Law, Political Science, Science, subjects from other faculties and sport). The old curriculum comprised the *studium generale*, the major subject and foreign languages (Sambe 1996: 199-200).

Characteristics of this programme include intensive language classes for three years (four periods, each 90 minutes long per week);³⁶⁹ the use of computers and audiovisual equipment in classes, cooperation between lecturers from different disciplines and an 'Introduction to Area and Culture Studies' course taught by the language teachers. The students learn in small classes (of circa 20 students in the language classes) and have more freedom of choice in how they design their own programme of study. The overall aim is to ensure students are competent to use their language and cultural skills in their later careers and are (Sambe 1996: 198-199):

mehr oder weniger in der Lage [...], die beiden Kulturen, nämlich die japanische und die deutsche, unmittelbar zu überbrücken, das heißt, daß sie letzten Endes eine gewisse „Kommunikationsfähigkeit auf relativierter Kulturbasis“ beherrschen können. [...] Die „Überbrückung beider Länder“ [...] kommt nur dadurch zustande, daß solche kompetenten Studienabgänger ausgebildet werden.

As part of this programme, students in the third and fourth years of study have the opportunity to visit a German-speaking country in the summer, which includes a four-week language course and undertaking an individual research project. The successful completion of such a project gives the students an opportunity the following year to apply for an external (to the university) scholarship which would allow them to study in a German-speaking country for a longer period of time (Sambe 1996: 203-204).

The area studies courses aim to motivate beginners to continue with their language learning and to give those learning a foreign language the basics of *LK* as it relates to the relevant country or countries (Sambe 1996: 204-205).³⁷⁰ In 1995/1996 courses on America, Great Britain, the German-speaking countries, France, Russia and Eastern and Middle Europe were offered. Sugitani (1989: 225-228) believes *LK* courses can contribute to international understanding and the learning of languages by, for example, helping to prevent some common misunderstandings between German and Japanese speakers.

³⁶⁸ Cf. Mandelartz 1999: 7-8; Mandelartz & Yamamoto 1999: 11-12; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 33-34; Richter 2000.

³⁶⁹ Cf. Richter 2000.

³⁷⁰ Cf. Aizawa 1999: 146-153.

Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 12) describe the attractiveness of the programme as being the combination of the desire to learn German, career prospects, flexibility in programme planning, sufficient staffing levels and modern technological equipment. Although there are still a number of problems including the lack of suitably qualified teaching staff, the compilation of suitable teaching materials and the production of a textbook, the reluctance of other foreign language departments to adopt such a programme and the ideological and financial support of the university, the German department hopes that it can be expanded and improved.

Although an increased emphasis on *LK* or area studies within such programmes is called for by many within the discipline,³⁷¹ Grünewald (1999b: 774) says that *LK* remains the poor cousin of literature in Japanese Germanistik programmes. He contends that language teaching in Japan was and is regarded as the rote learning of language structures and vocabulary:

Die tieferen Gründe sind m.E. in der religiös-philosophischen Lerntradition, im politisch-gesellschaftlichen Herrschaftssystem sowie in der lange Zeit geltenden Funktion der Fremdsprachen in Japan zu finden [...] Ein weiterer Grund, der zur Vernachlässigung der Landeskunde beigetragen hat, ist sicher auch die Tatsache, dass es bis vor 15 bis 20 Jahren für die meisten Japaner und Japanerinnen sehr unwahrscheinlich war, dass sie jemals nach Deutschland fahren würden.

Although the situation has changed drastically, this development has not had a marked effect on the methodology and didactics used to teach German in Japan.³⁷² One major problem with discussion of contemporary issues in German in Japan is the students' relatively low level of language competency. Grünewald (1999b: 778-781) says that the

content of courses in *LK* must be adapted to the parameters unique to the host country and that the topics must be contemporary issues and events. For example, discussion of the anniversary of the fall of the Berlin Wall and the differences between the East and West states and a comparison of the roles and status of women in Germany and Japan could be introduced into language (and other) courses. Richter (1999a: 758-760, 2000: 189-190) gives examples of applied research projects his students have undertaken, including topics such as politics and economics in the European Union, and the use of state symbols (e.g. flags and anthems) in Japan and Germany. Through these projects the students obtain a deeper insight into the similarities and differences between the two cultures, as well as making contacts and developing skills, which could assist them in later employment.

Increasingly there have been calls for ***the modernisation of language courses*** and the emphasis of German language courses to be on the spoken language rather than on grammar and translation skills, particularly as pupils wish to be able to communicate in the

³⁷¹ Cf. Wierlacher 1980c; Schubert 1989: 33-38; Christ-Kagoshima 1996: 77; Sambe 1996: 205; Takei 1996: 128; Aizawa 1999: 146-153.

³⁷² Cf. Mishima 1990: 133.

internationalised market.³⁷³ Sugitani (1995: 216) regards the fact that the ability to speak a foreign language is increasingly being called for as a teaching objective as an indication of a change in the orientation of and the attitude towards the teaching of foreign languages. Particularly the native German-speaking teaching staff are critical of the lack of emphasis on the spoken language and many of the reform initiatives have been developed by these staff.³⁷⁴ One reason for this is that these staff have relatively few restraints placed on their course planning and development by the curricula and can, therefore, experiment with new and innovative teaching methods, which they have studied as part of their training in Germany (Takayama-Wichter 1989: 61-62).

One early attempt to modernise the teaching of foreign languages in Japan was the introduction in the early 1960s of electronic language centres at two of the most reputable private universities in Tokyo. These were funded by industry and aimed to provide graduates with the foreign language competencies required by industry. Ten years later the government began to fund similar centres at three state universities (Osaka, Nagoya and Hiroshima) and planned to open a number of others. The advantages of this experiment included the fact that the foreign language teachers would be in a department of their own, the number of staff could be increased, the language laboratories were well equipped and the practical application of language learning could be emphasised. However, according to Haasch (1975: 231) this idea was not popular with those involved in the teaching of foreign languages at the time:

Als Nachteile wurde befürchtet: Forschung und Lehre werden voneinander getrennt, der Germanist wird zum reinen Sprachlabor reduziert ohne Forschungsmöglichkeiten, die Unterrichtsgebiete werden begrenzt, d.h. es wird im Grundstudium [...] an der philos. Fakultät nur noch englisch, französisch und deutsch unterrichtet statt wie bisher auch Philosophie, Geschichte und Literatur. Es werden nur noch Fertigkeiten eingebracht, aber keine geistigen Impulse mehr vermittelt.

Other early initiatives included the establishment of the *Japanische Deutschlehrerverband* in 1971 and the seminars organised by the *Goethe-Institut* in Tokyo in 1972 and 1975, which were the beginning of the discussion of and research into didactics and teaching methodology. However, because German teachers in Japan are not trained as teachers, they have limited knowledge of didactics and methodology, so little actual change has occurred.³⁷⁵ By the late 1990s, however, Slivensky (1999: 817) says that didactics had been introduced in a small way into Germanistik programmes.³⁷⁶ In 1992 a biannual didactics seminar was launched in conjunction with the *Goethe-Institut* in Tokyo and the *Germanistenverband*. The 1992 seminar dealt with the biological foundation of learning and the learning process, and the 1994 seminar with the planning of curricula (Sugitani 1995:

³⁷³ Cf. Brenn 1989a: 205; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 49, 58, 68-69; Takei 1996: 128; Höhn 1996: 63-71; Boeckmann 1998: 56-57.

³⁷⁴ Cf. Feldt 1989: 153-170; Takayama-Wichter 1989: 61-62; Lange 1996b, 1997: 124-127; Timmermann 1999: 484-487.

³⁷⁵ Cf. Haasch 1975: 229; Asakura 1992: 35; Sugitani 1995: 220-222; Ueda 1997: 53.

³⁷⁶ Cf. Nakagawa 1999: 911-917.

224). The 2000 seminar focused on intercultural learning.³⁷⁷ However, the definition of what didactics is or should include varies.

There has increasingly been pressure on teaching staff to introduce courses aimed at teaching students German communication skills. Mandelartz (1999: 8) says that the increasing number of German textbooks (such as the development by a working group of the *JDLV* of a minimum vocabulary list³⁷⁸) and the increasing cooperation and consultation between the German and Japanese teaching staff is an indication this is gradually beginning to happen. Terada (1996: 110-114) outlines changes to courses at Hokkaido University aimed at reducing the number of different teachers teaching the various parts of the courses and at increasing the cooperation and coordination (of textbooks, teaching materials and grammar taught, for example) between those teachers. Reinelt (1996: 79-87) describes developments in the German curricula of universities in Japan, including one course he teaches, in which he attempts to give students a simple yet multi-faceted introduction to German as a second foreign language as well as an insight into the countries in which German is spoken. Several native German-speaking teaching staff have introduced German communication methods into their teaching as a means of introducing the Japanese students to the German way of greeting others. For instance, by shaking hands as part of the greeting when the students enter the classroom (Gunske von Kölln 2000: 122).

Holzer (1996: 89-103) describes three experimental language courses at Hokkaido University introduced in 1995, each with an average of 25 to 35 participants (due to the drastic decline in the numbers of students enrolling in German as a second foreign language). Characteristics of these courses included a different approach to and emphasis on the teaching of grammar, reading and translation, the learning of vocabulary, using German as the main language of teaching,³⁷⁹ homework exercises that build on the material already covered and learnt in class as opposed to the usual preparation of unknown materials required of students in Japan, the use of many different media and methods of working and the teaching of learning and working techniques as part of the language courses. The positive results of these courses included the fact that the students increasingly participated in class discussions and activities and their motivation to learn German appeared to increase (Holzer 1996: 101-102).

Other initiatives introduced include the use of international language proficiency examinations (such as the *Österreichische Sprachdiplom Deutsch*) and certificates to increase the motivation and resulting communicative competencies of the students (Oswald 1999: 87-98); and the use of various forms of media (including international television news, newspaper and magazine articles, statistics and cartoons) to introduce comparative

³⁷⁷ Cf. <http://wwwsoc.nacsis.ac.jp/jgg/dokubun/seminar/375499ab.htm> (18 January 2000).

³⁷⁸ Cf. Asakura 1992: 23-49.

³⁷⁹ Many foreign language courses in Japan are taught in Japanese, thereby reducing the contact with the foreign language to almost nothing (Holzer 1996: 97).

exercises and global topics into language lessons (Reichert 1999: 169-176).³⁸⁰ Hayakawa (1994: 296) describes the introduction of the *Diplom Deutsch in Japan (DDJ)*, a nationally recognised certificate of attainment students can attain by sitting an examination. (There is, however, criticism of this certificate as it tends to focus on grammar.) Takayama-Wichter (1989: 62, 121-122) lists some of the changes, including the development of intensive courses outside of the prescribed programmes of study, holiday seminars for teachers and students at which the spoken language and communication skills are emphasised and inter-university seminars and intensive courses.³⁸¹

In 1988 the Japanese *Verband der Deutschlehrer an Oberschulen* was founded to research, develop and promote the communicative methods of teaching German and to develop new and innovative curriculum ideas (Itoi 1994: 219). The 1989 and 1991 reforms of foreign language curriculums called for an increase in the emphasis on communicative teaching methods and have resulted in a number of so-called communicative textbooks being developed (Itoi 1994: 210; Slivensky 1995: 339-340). However, Boeckmann (1999: 854) says that in Japan the traditional forms of interaction in the classroom are dependent on the traditional learning objectives and, therefore, must change if the learning objectives are to be changed. He (1999: 854-855) believes that changes in the way German is taught are urgently required and that:

‘Hilfe zur Selbsthilfe’ dürfte ein kulturübergreifendes didaktisches Ziel sein, das im Westen wie im Osten anerkannt wird und dem gerechzuwerden eine immer neue Herausforderung für uns Lehrende bedeuten sollte.

New teaching and lesson concepts, particularly those that emphasise the students’ receptive abilities are necessary according to Gunske von Kölln (2000: 101-102, 119-124). She maintains that students should be given the opportunity to learn information through challenging course content that will be useful in their later life. She calls for new and authentic teaching materials and textbooks to be used,³⁸² for a greater emphasis to be placed on autonomous learning and for students to be given the opportunity via the internet to have contact with native speakers. In addition, Gunske von Kölln (2000: 122) believes that not only the learning of the German language must be concentrated on, but also an (comparative) analysis of the target culture must be emphasised.³⁸³ Meuthen (1989: 51-53) stresses the need to develop a personal, interactive (however difficult that might be!) atmosphere in the classroom, particularly if the class is relatively small. Hofmann (1992: 64-65) describes her attempts to improve the communication skills of her students by having them role play dialogues in groups, encouraging group and partner exercises and having

³⁸⁰ Cf. Dillmann 1989a: 113-136, 211-246; Gehrmann 1999: 99-111; Schiedermaier 1999; Sugitani 2000: 113-114.

³⁸¹ Cf. Wakisaka 2000: 127-128.

³⁸² Cf. Meuthen 1989: 52-53; Brenn 1989a: 204, 1989c: 261; Ueda & Takei 1994: 336; Slivensky 1995: 342-346, 352-354; Aizawa 1996: 170; Boeckmann 1998: 55-56; Oswald 1999: 95.

³⁸³ Cf. Höhn 1996: 64-66.

them write homework about their dreams and aspirations, their families and student life, for instance.³⁸⁴

Many believe that videos, computers, CD ROM programmes, email and the internet could be utilised to improve the standard of German language competencies students have and to give students an accurate and diverse idea of modern German life and culture.³⁸⁵ In particular, the use of computers outside of university or in a computer room could be used to compensate for the lack of teaching hours allocated to German. There are, however, at present relatively few online German courses available in Japan as compared with in Canada and the US.³⁸⁶ Kuriyama (1999) outlines an internet programme for use in teaching German to Chinese, Japanese and Korean students. This programme gives students the opportunity to develop all four language skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading), to repeat the material as often as necessary and to obtain feedback from the test section immediately.

Brenn (1989a: 204-205) believes the university German departments could learn from the relatively attractive and successful language courses offered at the *Goethe-Institut*, and that the apparent demand by students for communicative courses must be taken into account in any reform plans. Brenn (1989b: 253-255) recommends a number of changes including the introduction of a specific degree programme (or component of a degree) for teacher training; redefinition of the way in which language courses are included in German Studies programmes; development of appropriate textbooks and teaching materials; research into what can be taught and which abilities should be prioritised given the few teaching hours available;³⁸⁷ the introduction of a national certificate at the end of the initial two years (when most stop learning German) to give some value and purpose to the study of a foreign language;³⁸⁸ the possibility of working together with other foreign language disciplines and Germanisten from other countries; the coordination of the different reform groups and projects, and discussion about what a communicative language programme actually entails.³⁸⁹

Yoshijima (1996: 52) says that the 1991 reforms of the foreign language programmes and education system mean that the often suggested “gesundes Schrumpfen” (“healthy shrinking”) of the Germanistik discipline can be realised within the framework of the education system. For instance, the introduction of intensive second foreign language

³⁸⁴ Cf. Boeckmann & Slivensky 2000: 171-175.

³⁸⁵ Cf. Meuthen 1989: 52; Ueda & Takei 1994: 336; Lange 1996b, 1997: 124-127; Lenzko 1999: 895-900; Tabata 1999: 886-894.

³⁸⁶ Cf. Gellert 1999.

³⁸⁷ Cf. Ueda & Takei 1994: 336.

³⁸⁸ Cf. Hawakawa 1994: 295-299.

³⁸⁹ Cf. Tsuji 1987: 138; Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 81-82; Aizawa 1996: 166-168; Hirataka 1999: 157-160; Reinelt 1999: 919-922.

courses allows the motivated students two or three times as many teaching hours as the other courses.³⁹⁰

A survey by the *JDLV* in 1998 found that since the introduction of the 1991 reforms circa 90 percent of universities had introduced new curricula for the teaching of foreign languages. In addition, new study programmes and faculties had been introduced in many universities. No matter what the various names these institutions and programmes have, the term 'intercultural communication' has become an ever-present term (Slivensky 1999: 818). Despite this the Germanistik discipline in Japan has not been particularly enthusiastic about this development and few interdisciplinary or intercultural programmes have been introduced. Some contend that attempts to improve the effectiveness of the teaching of German have been rather ineffective. While there has been discussion about the communicative method of teaching languages, this has not had much influence on teaching methodologies in general, especially given the large class sizes and the tendency to simply introduce banal exercises from everyday life as communicative lessons (Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 79-80; Hieber 1991; Ueda and Takei 1994: 329-332). A study carried out in 1997/1998 by the *JDLV* found that many teaching staff do not consider German to be of much value and also do not believe it will continue to be part of the curriculum! (Sambe 1999: 48)

Slivensky (1995: 339, 1999: 818) found that the lack of teaching staff trained in foreign language didactics and methodology (and the relative isolation of those who are) means that few constructive reform suggestions are able to be developed. Ueda (1990: 141) too says that despite sporadic and individual attempts to ensure the survival of the discipline and to improve the teaching methods used, little improvement has occurred. Those who have developed innovative programmes or courses have given much of their own time and energy with little concrete change due to the traditional structures within the universities.³⁹¹ Ammon (1992: 214-216) believes that many in the discipline still need to be convinced of the necessary changes and the opportunities, which the current situation of German in Japan provides. He contends that the number of students and teaching staff will continue to decline until reforms are implemented in the discipline and the programmes offered reflect the demand for German in Japan today.

Reinelt (1999: 919-922) believes that the foundations for change in the discipline have been laid during the past decade. For example, the number of articles and conference papers on practical aspects of German at the regional and annual conferences has increased dramatically and such topics are now being discussed and researched in various academic groups, such as the Japanese Association for Language Teaching (JALT). Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 13-14) see the current situation of the discipline as an opportunity for the

³⁹⁰ Cf. Kutsuwada *et al.* 1987: 75-82; Ammon 1992: 213-214; Mandelartz 1999: 8; Richter 1999b: 113-123.

³⁹¹ Cf. Hieber 1989: 71-72, 85-86; Mishima 1990: 136; Timmermann 1999: 481.

discipline to change. They believe that working together with the other foreign language disciplines in a kind of a political alliance to improve the status and value given to foreign languages, particularly in schools, could improve the predicament German is currently in.

Many within the discipline in Japan believe that it is high time the Germanistik discipline in Japan found its own niche and developed programmes in accordance with the parameters unique to Japan rather than following too closely the trends and developments of *Binnengermanistik*.³⁹² Since the 1980s there has been increasing discussion about an 'East Asian Germanistik', and an increasing number of examples of cooperation and exchange of ideas and solutions with Japan's neighbours and the Germanistik discipline internationally have developed. These include, for instance, the first symposium of Korean and Japanese Germanisten held in Seoul in 1989, the IVG Congress in Tokyo in 1990, the Chinese-Japanese Symposium in Peking in 1990, the Asian Germanisten conference, *Literatur im multimedialen Zeitalter – Neue Perspektiven der Germanistik in Asien*, held in 1997 in Seoul and the 1999 Asian Germanisten conference, *Schwellenüberschreitungen*, held in Fukuoka, Japan (Koshina 1997: 7-8; Klopfer 2000a: 52-53).³⁹³

³⁹² Cf. Minamiozi 1987: 3-5; Kino 1987: 15-16; Takahashi 1989: 66-67; Wollert 1997b: 51.

³⁹³ Cf. Kutsuwada 1992a: 133; Schmidt 1996: 29; Kaufmann 1998: 498-500; Richter 2000: 191-192.

II.3 German in Korea.

II.3.1 Introduction.

The history of German in Korea³⁹⁴ is approximately 110 years old and the development of Germanistik in Korea is closely entwined with the political, social and educational history and development of the country (Lie 1984: 35, 1987: 83; Hann 1984: 307; Yang 1997a: 55). This development has at times been difficult given the historical circumstances, making the discipline's achievements all the more significant (Rhie 1987: 35). It is perhaps surprising how much German is taught in Korea and how many points of contact exist between Korea and Germany. For instance, one often hears German folk songs or German music on the radio, television and at concerts. Pictures of German landscapes are often displayed in hotel lobbies. Many German words are part of the Korean pub and café scene (Adelhoefer 1996b: 17; Lie 1999). Most significantly and in contrast to China and Japan, German is taught not only at universities, but also in high schools and other educational institutions.

Korean history of the 20th century has been influenced and shaped by foreign, particularly western influences, although often indirectly through the Japanese dominance and occupation of Korea (Choe 1991: 95-96; Koch 1996: 13-14).³⁹⁵ While the impact of the Japanese occupation changed the Korean tradition of and its image of education, Confucian values and beliefs still dominate most aspects of life in Korea, in particular the education system. This conflict between the traditional and the modern values is reflected in the contradictions, which exist in the education system and in the educational reforms during the past two decades (Schmidt 1996: 29; Koch 1996: 13; Nellen 1989: 9-10).

The Republic of South Korea was founded in 1948 and within a few decades had changed from an essentially agricultural country to one of the most highly industrialised countries. Korea has a population of approximately 43 million and a very low population growth rate (Koch 1996: 49-50). According to some, the high level of investment in education and industrialisation in South Korea has not only been due to economic reasons but also to put communist North Korea to shame (Koch 1996: 58).

Wollert (1996: 44) describes the effect that the rapid industrialisation has and continues to have on Korea, its education system and the foreign language disciplines in particular:

Die Globalisierung Koreas wird mittelfristig das gesamte Erziehungssystem und vor allem die Fremdsprachenphilologien betreffen und sie zu Anpassungen und Veränderungen zwingen.

³⁹⁴ For the purposes of this study 'Korea' refers to the Republic of South Korea.

³⁹⁵ Cf. Zimmer 1996: 83-84; Tak 1999.

During the past fifty years Germanistik has been a relatively popular and institutionalised subject so the discipline has not had to concern itself with the questions and challenges it is now faced with (Rhie 1997b: 12; Yang 1998b: 1). The government's strong push for globalisation should have allowed a diversification and strengthening of foreign languages, however, the status of English as the world language (and as the first foreign language in Korea) has strengthened even more and the status of second foreign languages has actually declined during the globalisation process (Rhie 1997a: 12-13, 1997b: 12). According to Yang (1998b: 1), this is because the languages (and Humanities as a whole) have been (or are being) gradually and systematically replaced by those subjects an increasingly pragmatically orientated society and education system requires.

The dissolution of the Soviet Union and other changes in world political powers, as well as Korea's increasing relations with Japan and China have resulted in a limited diversification of the second foreign languages, for instance, the introduction of Spanish and Russian and the increasing numbers learning Japanese and Chinese. The increasing relations between Korea and the German-speaking countries during the past two decades should, logically, have led to an increase in the demand for German. However, as in Japan the dominance of English and the diversification of second foreign languages has led to the status of German being eroded (Rhie 1997a: 12-13, 1996b: 12; Paek 1999: 21). To understand the current situation of German in Korea, one must understand the cultural historical and current institutional parameters within which the discipline functions.³⁹⁶

II.3.2 Foreign Languages in the Korean School System: With a Particular Emphasis on German.

II.3.2.1 The introduction and development of foreign languages in Korea: a historical perspective.

The Korean education system was primarily influenced by Chinese culture, traditions and ideals until the end of the Yi dynasty (in approximately 1910) (Rhie 1997b: 8, 1999: 62-68; Koch 1996: 20ff). The earliest foreign languages in Korea were Chinese and Japanese, which were taught and learnt for the practical purposes of translation and interpretation. In the latter part of the 19th century and under the increasing influence of Japan and other Western powers, Korea began to open up to the rest of the world and the European languages started to be introduced. In 1884, for example, a translators' school was founded and mission schools followed (Rhie 1999: 68-74). Surprisingly enough the first European language taught in Korea was English (Kim 1971: 53; Yim 1986: 109-110).

³⁹⁶ Cf. Yang 1998a: 461.

The German Reich was one of the European powers that sought diplomatic and trade relations with Korea.³⁹⁷ A trade agreement between Korea and Germany was signed in 1883. Germans, such as Paul Georg von Möllendorf (who was sent to Korea from China to work in the Korean Foreign Ministry), were influential figures in the establishing of international relations and in the introduction of foreign language teaching and learning (Yang 1998a: 462, 1998b: 2; Rhie 1997b: 12-13). Von Möllendorf initiated the founding of the German School in 1898, which existed until 1910. The main objective of this school was to train the translators and interpreters required for trade and the diplomatic service (Yim 1986: 109; Son 1999: 566).³⁹⁸ This school was essentially the forerunner of the first Korean Foreign Language Institute for German. According to Kim (1971: 362), the Koreans also planned to copy the Prussian war efforts, however, it was more urgent to train quality translators.

Other institutions and organisations also represented German culture and science in Korea. Dr Richard Wunsch, for instance, was the personal doctor to the Emperor from 1901 to 1905 and attempted to establish a regional vaccination programme. Franz Ecker established a *Hofmusikkapelle*, equipped it with Western instruments and composed marches and festive music, including the Korean national anthem (Menke 1998: 7).

By 1900 the foreign languages which could be (or were to be) taught and the number of years of teaching required were regulated by law (Kim 1971: 53). However, due to the ensuing historical developments, the potentially promising beginning of foreign languages study in Korea became only a short episode. The teaching and learning of German in the present form, that is, German as a second foreign language, essentially began during the Japanese occupation (Rhie 1987: 47; 1997b: 13; Menke 1998: 7-8; Son 1999: 566).

Increasing pressure and influence was exerted on the Koreans by the Japanese after 1904. During the Japanese occupation of Korea (1910 to 1945) Japan attempted to replace the increasingly Western dominance in Asia with an Eastern dictatorship and values. Foreign nationals were forced to leave Korea, although some missionaries were allowed to remain and to teach in schools where lessons could still be taught in Korean (Menke 1998: 7-8). Japanese was the compulsory first foreign language during the occupation and English, French, German and Chinese were so-called *Wahlpflichtfächer* (obligatory optional subjects) for students at the general high schools (Lie 1984: 35; Yim 1986: 110; Menke 1998: 8). While English was usually regarded as the number one second foreign language, German experienced a high point in popularity as a subject after Japan signed the *Anti-Komintern-Pakt* with Germany in 1936. According to Schmidt (1996: 31), the fact that English and Korean were not taught in Korean schools during the war gave German as a subject time to attain dominance as *the* second foreign language and to cement its place in the high school

³⁹⁷ Cf. Kneider 1996.

³⁹⁸ Cf. Kim 1971 51-53; Lie 1984: 35; 1987: 83; Rhie 1997b: 12-13; Menke 1998: 7.

curriculum.³⁹⁹ For students of Medicine, Law and the Sciences during the occupation, German was an important and compulsory subject and the numbers learning German exceeded those learning English.⁴⁰⁰

Students learning German received two hours tuition per week compared with five hours tuition for English. Due to the small number of teaching hours, German and French lessons concentrated on learning the grammar rules by rote and on the translation of simple texts (Yang 1998a: 462, 465-466). Rhie (1997b: 13) describes the method used for teaching foreign languages as the “one-sided Grammar-Translation method” and continues that foreign language teaching and translation from the original into Japanese (or Korean) were essentially one and the same. This method of teaching languages remains largely intact in Korea today (Kim 1971: 53; Nellen 1989: 6).

In general foreign language learning is either regarded as an instrument of education itself or taught for some specific purpose (such as German for business). Yang (1997a: 56) contends that in Korea languages were and are frequently studied simply as a means to an end, that is, as a way of gaining a university degree. The pervading *Yang-ban*⁴⁰¹ attitude was always in the back of students’ minds. Pupils and students learnt according to the criteria for the next test or entrance examination. The examination tasks became increasingly complicated and the competition more extreme. All examinations were written and consequently only the students’ knowledge of grammar and their translation skills were tested. Yang (1998a: 462) contends that this attitude and the education system led to a worsening of the foreign languages competencies of Koreans. An example of this was that Korean students who went to Germany were regarded as specialists in German grammar, but they could hardly speak German! (Yang 1998a: 465-466)

The status of German as a foreign language changed after 1945. The Koreans attempted to remove all Japanese traces from the curriculum, and English became the first foreign language taught in schools. While German remained the dominant second foreign language after 1945 (particularly due to the positive image Koreans had of the German culture), this situation has not remained constant.

One of the many ‘reform’ attempts in relation to foreign language teaching and learning occurred in the late 1960s, when a Korean government minister visited several African countries where he realised that the people understood neither English nor German. On his return he ordered that more French be taught in Korean schools in order to balance out the relatively high number of pupils learning German.⁴⁰² German was removed as a subject

³⁹⁹ Cf. Lie 1984: 36; Rhie 1987: 48.

⁴⁰⁰ Cf. Yim 1986: 110; Lie 1987: 83; Menke 1998: 8; Yang 1998b: 2.

⁴⁰¹ The ruling classes of the Yi dynasty were the educated classes or *Yang-ban*.

⁴⁰² Cf. Kim 1971: 54; Chi 1975: 147; Yang 1998a: 463; Rhie 1987: 49.

from the curriculum at most girls' schools and French was taught instead. Some German teachers were forced to teach English or leave their positions completely (Yang 1998a: 463).

A second major change in the position of German was signalled when Japanese was (re)introduced as a second foreign language in Korean high schools in 1973.⁴⁰³ For many years the deeply rooted anti-Japanese feelings had hindered this despite the obvious practical applications of Japanese. However, after a number of years this sentiment had receded somewhat and the language had become popular because of the opportunities to utilise it in the professional context. Close and increasing economic ties between Korea and Japan have increased the importance of Japanese as an economic language (Yim 1986: 110; Rhie 1997a: 12).

In addition, the linguistic similarities between Japanese and Korean mean it is regarded as being easy to learn. Given these linguistic similarities, the number of loan words from Japanese which are used in Korean and the fact that it is paramount for pupils in Korea to obtain the highest possible marks in their final years of school and in the university entrance examination, it is little wonder that pupils have chosen to learn Japanese rather than a European language, such as German, as their second foreign language. Many school directors (who grew up speaking or hearing Japanese) have also advanced Japanese within the offerings of their schools (Hong 1992: 78; Yang 1997a: 56). Korean students also have regular access to the Japanese language in the travel agencies, department stores and hotels, where one hears English and Japanese. The rapid increase in the number of pupils and students choosing to learn Japanese as a second foreign language during the past two decades continues to threaten the position of German (Lie 1984: 35; Rhie 1987: 50).

Chinese was (re)introduced as a second foreign language in the 1980s as economic and diplomatic relations with Korea's neighbouring countries have normalised and increased (Yang 1998a: 463). During the Cold War Chinese as a second foreign language was of minimal importance. However, since the development of diplomatic relations with China, bilateral political and economic relations between Korea and China have expanded rapidly (Rhie 1997a: 12). This expansion has resulted in a dramatic increase in the demand for all things Chinese. The language policies of the South Korean government in the late 1980s also promoted relations with Latin American and African nations. Spanish and Russian were added to the high school curriculum as second foreign languages in 1992 (and from 2002 Arabic is to be taught in schools as well) (Lie 1987: 84-85).

The introduction of more second foreign languages has inevitably led to competition between the languages over the past 50 years. One indication of this is that the number of foreign language teachers has increased dramatically, more than doubling between the mid 1970s

⁴⁰³ It would appear from some sources that some schools taught Japanese and Chinese during the 1970s before these were officially (re)introduced (Nord 1997: 48).

and 1980s (Rhie 1987: 50; Yang 1997a: 56). In 1996 there were circa 1270 German language teachers at both the general and vocational high schools in Korea with circa 10 480 English teachers, 1560 Japanese teachers, 800 French teachers, 200 Chinese teachers, 50 Spanish teachers and 10 Russian teachers (Rhie 1997b: 15-16; Yang 1997a: 55-56). This was a dramatic increase in foreign language teachers from the early 1980s, when there were approximately 6120 English teachers, 780 German teachers, 320 French teachers, 440 Japanese teachers, 10 Chinese teachers and only very few teachers of Spanish (Lie 1984: 36). In the early 1980s only 572 of the 1729 schools (both general and vocational) offered two or more second foreign languages in their programmes. However, by 1996 approximately 1160 of the 1880 high schools throughout South Korea offered a second foreign language and 573 offered two second foreign languages (Yang 1997a: 55-56).

Structural changes in the curriculum prescribed by the Ministry of Education (MOE) have also impacted on the development of foreign languages and the situation of German in Korea. Up until 1985 students could choose between the six foreign languages offered by schools (although not all schools offered all six). English has been the **compulsory** first foreign language since 1986. The numbers learning second foreign languages in 1986, 1992 and 1996 were as follows (Rhie 1987: 49, 1997b: 17, 1997c; Hong 1992: 78):

	1986	1992	1996
Japanese	297 235	932 193	802 654
German	278 660	653 488	522 273
French	107 931	368 705	318 885
Chinese	15 879	52 730	85 438
Spanish	13 816	22 328	14 812

The expansion and diversification of second foreign languages parallels the general development of the education system in Korea (Rhie 1987: 50). However, the increasing numbers wanting to learn a foreign language have also meant an increasing number of problems, including large class sizes, a decrease in the number of teaching hours per subject and a lack of language laboratories and suitable teaching materials.⁴⁰⁴

Despite the dominance of English and the rapid increase in the number of those learning Japanese, German remains surprisingly popular. It was not until the mid 1980s that German's position as the dominant second foreign language was overtaken by Japanese (Rhie 1987: 50). German remains an important language for those studying Law, although English is now the important language for those studying Medicine and the Sciences (Yim 1986: 110; Lie 1987: 83; Menke 1998: 8; Yang 1998b: 2). According to Yim (1986: 111), German remains an important cultural and academic language. One example of this he cites is the number of students and academics who want to undertake further study at universities in the German-speaking countries.⁴⁰⁵ Also the importance of the FRG is increasing in economic circles, so German could be needed in the future as an economic

⁴⁰⁴ Cf. Chi 1975: 144-146; Song 1989; Koch 1996: 61, 117, 131-132; Manke 1996: 26; Nord 1997: 46.

⁴⁰⁵ Cf. Lie 1984: 36.

language. In 1955 diplomatic relations between the FRG and South Korea were established as were relations between the GDR and North Korea (Menke 1998: 8). Today the FRG is Korea's third largest trading partner after the US and Japan (Koch 1996: 97).

The popularity of German as a foreign language in Korea may be evident in the fact that German is offered at numerous high schools and circa 70 universities, but the numbers are only one factor impacting on the discipline (Menke and Nord 1997: 3-4). The Korean government has encouraged globalisation during the past three decades in particular. Globalisation in Korea, however, is often regarded as 'Americanisation' and English is the only language promoted in any way. Historically Korea relied on the US and it is only recently that the government has begun to re-orientate itself towards its Asian neighbours (Rhie 1987: 35). Menke and Nord (1996: 3) too warn that appearances are deceptive as the government's one-sided approach to globalisation has resulted in English becoming ever more dominant in many aspects of life in Korea. Many believe that learning English will guarantee a prosperous future, that it is a guarantee of economic and academic success. The subsequent demands on and the structure of the Korean education system have created conflicts between the need to become internationally competitive and the Confucian education and social ideals. An example of this conflict is that ambitious parents attempt to have their pre-schoolers learn English, and high school pupils attend private institutions before and after school to learn English and, therefore, attain better results in the entrance examination (Menke and Nord 1997: 3).

II.3.2.2 Changes and reforms in the Korean school system since 1945.

During the Yi dynasty (1392 to 1910) the leading classes focused on the study of Chinese works. Confucian traditions and values served as an example to the people and were the mainstays of social order. Education was one way to achieve social standing in this hierarchial society (Koch 1996: 14; Rhie 1997b: 8; Yang 1998b: 4). During the Japanese occupation (1910 to 1945) the Japanese exercised strict control over the Korean education system. Many Confucian institutions were closed as the Japanese attempted to erase the Korean identity. It was virtually impossible for Koreans to study at the only Korean university, the Keijo University in Seoul, and most were forced to study in Japan (Schmidt 1996: 30).

The new education system introduced in 1948 was one the Japanese had developed based on the European and American education systems, whereby pupils attended primary school for six years, middle school for three years, high school for three years and a tertiary institution for a further four years.⁴⁰⁶ There are general, vocational, science, foreign languages, arts, sport, commerce and various technical high schools. The high school curriculum includes Korean, Korean History, World History, Geography and Geology,

⁴⁰⁶ Cf. Lie 1987: 84; Kim 1993/94: 25; Zimmer 1996: 85; Yang 1998a: 461-462. According to Nellen (1989: 6), this new model of education system was introduced in 1946.

English, a second foreign language, Mathematics, a science, practical subjects like Health or, for girls, Home Economics, and for boys, a form of technical work, Music, Art and Sport. Depending on the type of school there may be additional subjects (Kim 1993/94: 25-26; Koch 1996: 54).

Demand for a basic education has increased dramatically since the introduction of the new education system. In 1945 there were circa 2830 primary schools with circa 1 366 000 pupils, 170 middle schools with circa 80 800 pupils, and circa 300 high schools with circa 40 270 pupils. By 1992 there were circa 4 560 120 pupils attending circa 6120 primary schools, 2 336 280 attending 2540 middle schools and 2 125 500 attending 1740 high schools (Koch 1996: 63-65).

(American) English is taught at middle school (or even at primary school) and continued at high schools. It is compulsory (Kim 1993/94: 26). The reforms introduced in 1995 require English to be taught from year three onwards in schools, and second foreign languages from year eleven onwards (Yang 1997a: 57). In the general and science high schools pupils can take a second foreign language; in foreign language high schools a further foreign language is compulsory. MOE guidelines state that pupils may choose between French, German, Spanish, Chinese and Japanese,⁴⁰⁷ but in reality the school director decides which second foreign language(s) will be taught and only very few schools actually offer two or more languages.⁴⁰⁸ Foreign language high schools are the exception to this norm. Pupils at these schools receive extra conversation tuition (often from a native speaker or foreign language assistant) in the first and second foreign languages. Kim (1993/94: 27) believes, however, that as from the mid 1990s courses in a second foreign language at high schools will decline due to the new rules governing university entrance timetable and processes. The entrance examinations are no longer set for one date but rather are to be held within a certain time-period. This allows the top ranking universities to schedule their examinations at times that are advantageous to them, but which leave students little time to apply for and sit entrance examinations at other universities.

There is no equivalent to the German *Abitur* in the Korean system, but rather a complicated point system comprising grades attained in school for the past three years, individual subjects results in the final school examination and grades attained in the entrance examination. 340 points is the highest possible attainable amount. As universities and subjects are ranked hierarchically and allocated to students according to points gained, the better pupils are able to study the most popular subjects at the 'best' universities (Nellen 1989: 7). As study places are limited, a high level of competition between final year pupils has resulted. Koch (1996: 74-76) describes the negative consequences of the high and often excessive competition placed on high school pupils in order to pass their high school

⁴⁰⁷ And in the future Russian and Arabic.

⁴⁰⁸ Cf. Hong 1992: 78; Giersberg 1998: 468.

examinations and the university entrance examination. A further pressure is that only about one third of those sitting the entrance examinations can pass and be placed in tertiary study in any given year.⁴⁰⁹

II.3.2.3 German in Korean schools.

According to Schmidt (1996: 31-32), German remained the most frequently taught second foreign language at general high schools until the mid 1990s, while Japanese was the most frequently taught at the vocational high schools. Menke (1998: 8) found that there were circa 500 000 pupils learning German at high school in 1998. However, Menke and others warn that quantity is not to be confused with quality. Only very few pupils can actually speak German well after several years of lessons and their knowledge of area studies is limited.⁴¹⁰

The curriculum for German in high schools is prescribed, as is the content (Lie 1987: 85). Hann (1984: 311) outlines the objectives of German courses at Korean high schools in the 1982 curriculum as being:

- (a) Pupils should acquire the basic knowledge and elementary abilities of contemporary High German (Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing);
- (b) Pupils should be assisted to an understanding of the Germans and their culture and to a furthering of their view of the world, so that they can further develop as individuals; and
- (c) Pupils should be able to introduce and explain their own culture and Korea's current situation in general in simple German language.⁴¹¹

These goals are followed by precise directives as to the production of textbooks, the grading of students' work and other administrative matters.⁴¹² The university entrance examination system is also prescribed by the MOE, but is constantly changing, something which demotivates pupils who are already under pressure as they have a large number of subjects to study for.

Many contend that it is not possible to achieve the goals of the prescribed curriculum given the present situation.⁴¹³ Nellen (1989: 12) says that in reality, translation and learning of grammar rules by rote is the focus of language teaching in schools. And after two or three years of German lessons (with a maximum of 200 teaching hours) many students can repeat the declensions and conjugations backwards but cannot formulate a simple sentence in German. Factors that (both historically and currently) hinder the success of German in high schools include:

⁴⁰⁹ Cf. Hong 1992: 77-78.

⁴¹⁰ Cf. Ahn 1989: 351; Giersberg 1998: 468.

⁴¹¹ Cf. Nellen 1989: 11-12; Hong 1992: 78-79.

⁴¹² Cf. Chi 1975: 144; Rohs 2001: 5.

⁴¹³ Cf. Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 39-40; Hong 1992: 78-79; Rhie 1987: 51-52.

- The lack of motivation to learn a second foreign language on the pupils' part as second foreign languages belong to the 'alternative' subjects (along with the much easier Home Economics, for example) for the university entrance examination;
- Most pupils very seldom or never come into contact with Germans and, therefore, have no opportunities to use their language skills;
- The lack of adequately trained German teachers, who can speak the language well. Young teachers, who do not have high levels of language competency or training in methodology and didactics, are sent into schools with practically no preparation, so the quality of the lessons suffers;⁴¹⁴ and
- The focus of the textbooks used for teaching German in Korea, which tend to include all the grammar rules.

Given the small number of teaching hours allowed per week, it is very difficult to learn all the rules. Chi (1975: 149-150) continues that German lessons in high schools are supposed to include a certain amount of vocabulary, but that this is not always adhered to. Emphasis is put on the grammar and pupils do not learn the vocabulary or sentence structures necessary for practical life. A number of questions need to be addressed to improve the textbooks utilised according to Chi. These include the simplification of the terminology used in grammar books (as the translations into Korean do not always use the standard German terms), the amount of vocabulary to be learnt within a given period, and the selection of vocabulary according to the frequency of usage in everyday life and the examination requirements. Teachers need to use original texts that depict the social, cultural and linguistic differences between the two countries in a bilingual and contrastive form.

Rhie (1987: 52) too suggests a number of innovations necessary to improve the quality and success of German in Korean high schools. These include the development of a teaching and research group in *DaF* (especially for Korean German teachers), compilation of a catalogue of precise learning objectives (e.g. vocabulary, structure, grammar, *LK*), improvements in the (further) training opportunities for German teachers, development of teaching materials, expansion of motivating tools for pupils (such as contact with native speakers; penpal schemes and exchanges), the teaching of a modern and realistic picture of German and the inclusion of second foreign languages as an examinable subject in the entrance examination. Lie (1987: 85-88) calls for an increased emphasis on speaking and listening skills, reductions in class sizes, and an increase in the number of contact hours to ensure that the objectives of the curriculum are met. He concedes, however, that this will be difficult given the political, social and economic factors impacting on the discipline. On the positive side, Lie (1987: 86-87) says that teachers are increasingly utilising cassettes in classes and there has been a trend in the more recent textbooks published by the MOE to

⁴¹⁴ Cf. Merkelbach 1998: 27-28.

include easier texts (mostly dialogues) about topics in everyday life and with more emphasis on pronunciation and intonation.

These factors also impact on university German courses and programmes as the universities are forced to attempt to make up for the deficiencies of German in high schools, that is, to familiarise students with a basic knowledge of German language (Hong 1992: 79; Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 40-41). As a result the place of second foreign languages (particularly those with no perceived application in the employment market) is increasingly questioned in schools and universities (Manke 1997: 28).

II.3.3 The Role of Foreign Languages in the Tertiary Sector.

II.3.3.1 Changes and reforms in the tertiary education sector since 1945 and the effect on foreign language teaching and learning.

Demand for tertiary education in Korea as in China and Japan has increased dramatically with 1 982 510 students attending the circa 630 tertiary institutions (universities and technical colleges) in 1992 as compared with circa 7600 students attending 19 tertiary institutions in 1945 (Koch 1996: 68-69). Tertiary education has become almost expected of young people so as to avoid exclusion from the social structure and employment opportunities.⁴¹⁵ Despite the fact that the Korean education system has expanded and changed dramatically since the founding of the Republic in 1948, the so-called *Yangban* ideology continues to influence Korean society and the Korean education system (Franz 1983/84: 37-38).⁴¹⁶ This is reflected in the official ranking of the approximately 120 universities in Korea, where the number one place is held by the Seoul National University (SNU). Many say that a student who obtains a place at SNU does not need to concern themselves with his or her professional career.⁴¹⁷

Koch (1996: 117) describes the function of education in Korea as being in the first instance to allocate social status and integrate the individual into the social structure or hierarchy. Some believe that the quality of academic education has been eroded by the *Yangban* ideology, particularly as the quantity of students and educational institutions have expanded.⁴¹⁸ Nord (1997: 45-46) contends that although students may increasingly be choosing subjects (such as Computer Science, International Law and Economics) for economic reasons, the most important thing remains the attainment of a degree (preferably at a top ranking university). Nord (1997: 44-45) maintains that the Confucian values of social status and the traditional role education has had in Korea, have created difficulties given the rapid market-driven industrialisation of Korea.⁴¹⁹

⁴¹⁵ Cf. Lie 1987: 87; Nellen 1989: 7-8; Kim 1993/94: 28-29; Koch 1996: 76, 83-86; Giersberg 1998: 467-468.

⁴¹⁶ Cf. Koch 1996: 14, 76; Yang 1998a: 461-462, 1998b: 2-3.

⁴¹⁷ Cf. Hann 1985: 119; Anders 1989: 333; Giersberg 1998: 468. Surprisingly Koch's study (1996: 194) found the employment chances of SNU graduates of German were no better than those of other universities.

⁴¹⁸ Cf. Timmermann 1999: 483.

⁴¹⁹ Cf. Franz 1983/84: 38.

Students apply to study at a particular university. Whether they receive a place at their desired university depends on their achievements in the last year of high school, their final examination results and their results in the entrance examination (Giersberg 1998: 468). The level of achievement in Korean, English and Mathematics are most important in the entrance examinations. Only those with excellent results are allowed to study the most popular subjects, such as Medicine, Law and Management/Economics.⁴²⁰ Subjects too are ranked in order of popularity in Korea. Second foreign languages as a subject are one of the least favoured subjects. Many choose to study German because they did not attain a high enough point value to study a more attractive subject. However, students would rather study German at a renowned university than their subject of choice at a small provincial university! (Giersberg 1998: 468; Menke 1998: 8; Choi 1984, 1991) The ranking of universities and subjects has led to a feeling of failure for many as they are unable to attend their preferred university to study their desired subject, yet the ultimate goal of high school education in Korea, according to Kim (1993/94: 28), is to obtain entrance to the best possible university.

In the past second foreign languages were a compulsory part of the entrance examination only at SNU. At all other universities the second foreign languages were and continue to be an optional subject for this examination. Koch (1996: 107-108) believes there is little chance for German as long as it is not a relevant subject for the examinations. Pupils are only motivated to learn if the subject was (or is) a required subject for the examination(s) (Hong 1992: 77-78). In 1996 the *Koreanische Gesellschaft für Deutsch als Fremdsprache (KGDaF)* petitioned for the place of German and other second foreign languages to become a compulsory subject for the entrance examination, but to no avail (Giersberg 1998: 468).

Since the introduction of the new education system in 1948 constant reforms have occurred. The MOE has carried out several reviews and several complete overhauls of the curriculum and the teaching and learning objectives. These reforms have continued during the past ten years. Many of the changes have coincided with changes in the government and have been made without much thought to continuity or how to combine the newest reforms or ideas with the recent changes. The key word of these reforms has been 'globalisation', although many in the education sector see this as 'Americanisation' (Yang 1997a: 57; Paek 1999: 21).

Schmidt (1996: 35) found that Germanistik in Korea is under pressure from both the content (that is, the dominance of literary studies) and appeal and from the education policies of the government. This is the result of the rapid expansion of the tertiary sector in the 1970s and 1980s, ad hoc political decisions and the constant changes and reforms carried out in the education sector (Schmidt 1996: 36):

⁴²⁰ Cf. Choe 1991: 83; Hann 1984: 315.

Das ist, wie einer sagte, vor allem ein Resultat der koreanischen Bildungspolitik überhaupt und der Expansion der Universitäten 1979/80 im besonderen. Diese Politik zeichnet sich nicht durch behutsames Pläne aus, sondern durch ad-hoc Entscheidungen, die von einem Tag zum anderen in die Tat umgesetzt werden müssen, oft der Profilierung und nicht der Verbesserung dienen, ohne daß über die Folgen nachgedacht wurde und nach dem Motto: Hier ist die Reform, schaut wie ihr damit zurecht kommt.

Fundamental reforms in the tertiary sector were instigated in 1995 when the MOE announced its planned university reforms or *Hakbuchae*. These structural and institutional reforms were introduced by most universities in 1996, the exception being SNU where reforms in the Humanities were introduced in 1997.⁴²¹ Since then all disciplines at all universities have had to adapt to the ministry's guidelines.

Part of the reforms aims to give students more choice and responsibility in the selection of their subjects (particularly in the choice of their major subject(s)) in order to increase their own motivation and initiative. Additionally, students are supposed to be able to choose and change subject areas within a particular faculty. To this end the number of teaching hours in the compulsory subjects has been decreased.⁴²² Until these reforms were enacted, students were essentially assigned to major in a particular subject. National Ethics was and is compulsory. The final year of study was and is essentially used to obtain employment, which is again dependant on the results of work placement tests, the subject(s) studied and, most importantly, on the university one studied at (Nellen 1989: 8). Part of the reform process aims to abolish the central university entrance examination by 2001 in order to compensate for the extreme growth in the tertiary sector and to quash the mentality of attending renowned universities as opposed to concentrating on the actual subject content.

As part of the B.A. degree students are required to complete courses in compulsory subjects (English, Korean and Social Sciences), supporting subjects (such as a second foreign language or a science subject) and optional subjects (such as computer courses). Until the mid 1990s students had to gain 140 credits during the four-year degree. Almost half of the required credits (50 to 71) had to be gained in the major subject. 27 to 41 credits were required in the supporting subjects and 36 to 51 in general education courses. (Each course is worth three credits.) Since the 1995 reforms, however, students have to gain 120 credits for a Bachelors and of those only 36 to 39 in the major subject.

Where two foreign languages are compulsory, English is the first choice and one of French, German, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish or Russian the second choice (Yim 1986: 113; Son 1999: 566). Most optional subjects are taken in the first year of study. The first year is essentially general education with reading, translation and grammar exercises in foreign language courses. Most students have few prior language skills so spend the first two years

⁴²¹ Cf. *Stichwort 'Hakbuchae'* 1999: 38.

⁴²² Cf. Wollert 1996: 25-26, 1998: 10; Rhie 1997a; Giersberg 1998: 468-469; Paek 1999: 21.

intensively learning the language. Despite this the Germanistik curriculum demands a high level of German language skills. The result is a discrepancy between the directives contained in the curriculum and actual practice.

The key question confronting the discipline is why would Korean students choose to study a subject that has little or no practical use in Korea? Universities have in practice tended to indirectly influence student choice through imposing a numerus clausus on some courses or through directing students towards certain subjects, particularly towards the less popular languages with lower enrolments. Wollert (1999: 9) found that where freedom of choice does exist, the number of students studying German as a major has declined.⁴²³ As a result some courses can only be offered by including students who are taking German as a minor or optional subject or students from other semesters (more advanced students, for instance) or by reducing the minimum number of participants. In some cases literature courses have been replaced with area studies courses so the professors can fulfill the required number of teaching hours despite the decline in demand for Germanistik courses. Wollert (1998: 10) regards this as an opportunity to make the necessary changes in the curriculum, which will ensure improvements in the quality of German programmes and will attract students (back) to the discipline.⁴²⁴

What has impacted on Germanistik the most is that the necessary credits for a major have been halved and students now have the right to combine subjects as they wish within a faculty. This means that German is not only in competition with the other second foreign languages, but also with other subjects (Yang 1998b: 19-20). German departments are afraid a dramatic decline in students will occur because everyone wants to learn English (and other vocational subjects), as English skills are more applicable to subsequent employment. The *Hakbuchae* have completely turned the parameters within which the Germanistik discipline in Korea functioned historically and continues to function upside down (Wollert 1999: 9). The 1995/1996 education reforms have had a negative impact on the German Studies discipline as the status of second foreign languages has been further reduced and the institutionalised position of German almost completely abolished.

Some believe the discipline has a chance to survive as a supporting subject and or because of the large number of high school students who have learnt German at school, others consider this to be the downfall of the discipline (Schmidt 1996: 36; Yang 1997a: 57). Menke (1997:11-12) says that there may be a high number of pupils and students who learn German, but few can speak well as they have little or no opportunity to use the language. He continues that the reforms in the universities have resulted in almost everyone wanting to study English. However this must lead to a glut of graduates with English skills and little else. Menke sees this as an opportunity for German as a discipline to offer attractive

⁴²³ Cf. Yang 1998b: 19-20.

⁴²⁴ Cf. *Bericht* 1997: 4-5.

teaching programmes such as interdisciplinary programmes in Business German or European Studies, which give graduates the edge in the employment market. Wollert (1996: 45; 1997a: 41) too believes the German degree(s) must have a practical application that takes into account interdisciplinary programmes and the international perspective of the subject. He believes the practical emphasis could be attained through a *Praktikum* in a company, for instance. Others question why the students should have influence on what is offered in German programmes and Schmidt (1996: 36) says the simple answer to that is that they are paying the (relatively high) fees.

Schwarz (1999: 6-7) agrees that there has been a general decline in the discipline since the introduction of the reforms. He suggests that staff (where there have been reductions in the number of students and the subsequent cancellation of courses) form working groups to discuss and analyse the situation and to develop possible solutions. Some believe that the changes can have positive effects on the discipline. Paek (1999: 26), for instance, calls for the structure of German departments to be maintained together with those students who want to study German. This could be an opportunity to strengthen and integrate more fully the position of the native German-speaking staff as language competency is essential for quality programmes.⁴²⁵ However, Giersberg (1998: 469) says the practical application of these reforms has been slow, and is often hindered or halted by factors such as the lack of facilities and the problem of coordinating timetables.

II.3.3.2 Languages in the competitive context: the example of German.

As in China and Japan, foreign languages in Korea have increasingly found themselves in a competitive environment, particularly given the expansion and reforms in the tertiary sector, the diversification of the political, economic and social orientation of Korea, and the diversification of the second foreign languages offered.⁴²⁶ Franz (1983/84: 34-35) contends that a complexity of factors face foreign language teaching staff (in particular) in Korea and that a lack of comprehensive research means the whole picture is not often seen. This can result in teaching methods not being successful if applied without taking into account the historical, sociological and economic factors which impact on the behaviour and expectations of Korean students. Given this context, a number of additional factors must also be considered when analysing the trends in German programmes in Korea.

The *perceived limited 'usefulness' or career application of German in Korea* is one such factor. According to Timmermann (1999: 483) and others,⁴²⁷ part of the reason German is not a popular choice as a major subject is because there are few opportunities to utilise German language skills in the employment context in Korea. Even German firms in Korea use English as the primary language of correspondence and business. Graduates,

⁴²⁵ Cf. Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 55-56; Schmidt 1996: 36.

⁴²⁶ Cf. Paek 1999: 21.

⁴²⁷ Cf. Hann 1984: 314-315; Nellen 1989: 1; Hofmann & Kim 1993/94: 59-60; Koch 1996: 106-110, 113; Manke 1996: 28; Yang 1997a: 57; Giersberg 1998: 468; Son 1999: 569.

therefore, require good English language skills for the tests taken as part of the employment process as well as for Korean high school qualifications and university entrance examinations. Second foreign languages play no part in work placement tests (Chi 1975: 150). In addition, the technological advances and increasing dominance of English on the internet have led to a decline in the need for foreign languages as a medium for students of Law, Medicine and the Sciences, (Timmermann 1999: 483).

Koch's study (1996: 108, 148; 178-181) found that the percentage of university graduates who find a job related to Germanistik is very small, even for those students who are interested in the subject. She (1996: 174, 178-179) found that 40 percent of Germanistik students had no interest in the subject at the beginning of their studies and that interest in a subject was only a secondary consideration when deciding what to study. Schröder (1997) contends that German is seen rather as a means to an end: that is, as a way of attaining a university degree which is the overriding prerequisite for the work placement test. There are only very few careers in Korea for which German skills are necessary or important. These include German teachers, lecturers and professors, translators, interpreters and lawyers. Manke (1997: 27) says that there are very few new positions for teachers in schools and universities being created and the market for translators and interpreters has long since been satisfied. Of the approximately 900 teaching positions in German, very few are available for new graduates. So graduates often become English teachers in a rural middle school, if they teach at all, and, therefore, plan for and study towards this eventuality during their time at university.⁴²⁸

Yang (1998b: 13-14) contends that in the 1980s German departments had more students wishing to enrol than the number of allowed places. Graduates of Germanistik obtained good positions although they did not require expertise in German for their employment. Those young academics, who had completed a PhD in Korea or in a German-speaking country, almost all obtained positions in academia. Today, however, those young academics returning from study in German-speaking Europe (often with a PhD) and who want to work in the tertiary sector are often only employed on an hourly basis and paid accordingly (Menke 1998: 8). Consequently, while lots of Koreans may learn German, few are actually in the position to utilise their language skills and cultural knowledge. Koch too (1996: 113) agrees that students cannot be expected to be motivated to study German as chances are that they will not be able to obtain a position in a field related to their major subject.⁴²⁹ According to Franz (1983/83: 37), the education of students as generalists is an accepted norm in Korea. Germanistik graduates with a B.A. often consider themselves suitable for any position in the higher social strata, such as manager or teacher. This has, in his opinion, led to the content of the degree losing relevance and to perhaps no real interest in the actual subject matter.⁴³⁰

⁴²⁸ Cf. Seybel 1995: 12.

⁴²⁹ Cf. Kim 1992: 132; Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 43.

⁴³⁰ Cf. Nellen 1989: 13.

Ahn (1989: 352-353) too believes the justification of German as a subject is problematic in a society where hardly any practical need for it exists. However, he believes that it is necessary to learn foreign languages and cultures in order to develop in line with the international market and to remain internationally competitive. According to Nellen (1989: 1), the relatively small role Germany or German companies play in the Korean economy contributes to the low status of German relative to English or American Studies. During the rapid industrialisation of Korea and the economic development of the late 1980s the seemingly irrelevant Humanities degrees, such as German, as opposed to the relatively new subjects, such as Computer Science, were neglected (Nellen 1989: 1; Kim 1992: 132).⁴³¹ Because of this a degree in German is regarded as only interesting for those who want to become teachers or for those who want to study in Germany (often something unrelated to German). The traditional curricula and teaching methods of Germanistik in Korea are not only regarded as uninteresting, (particularly for those who are not studying German out of interest), but also as being of no use in the professional sense (Adelhoefer 1996b: 17; Menke and Nord 1997: 4).

There is, however, an increasing number of Korean students wanting to study overseas as it is regarded as very prestigious to study in Europe, Japan or the US.⁴³² The favourite destination of Korean students (in 1994) was the US, followed by Japan, Germany, France and China. Other destinations included Italy, England and Australia. Because of the number of Korean students wanting to study at German universities, the German government introduced entrance criteria in 1988. These include a degree of German language proficiency, a prime opportunity for Germanistik in Korea to become more language oriented (Nellen 1989: 1-2). In this context, it perhaps does not bode well for the future development of German, that the DAAD and the German government have in recent years supported the introduction of programmes specifically taught in English at German universities.

The positive *perception Koreans have of Germany and the German culture* is often given as a reason for the relatively large number of students learning German.⁴³³ Adelhoefer (1996b: 16) describes the Koreans' positive image of Germany in the following way:

Für viele von ihnen ist Deutschland nicht nur ein hochentwickeltes Industrie- und Exportland, dem es nach Kräften nachzueifern gilt, sondern vor allem auch ein Land, an dem sich eine erfolgreiche Variante der europäischen Kultur kennenlernen läßt.

The similarities between the German and Korean historical and political systems (including the division of both countries and the similar constitutions) have added to the interest

⁴³¹ Cf. Paek 1999: 24.

⁴³² Cf. Yim 1986: 111; Lie 1987: 84-85; Adelhoefer 1996b: 18; Nord 1997: 51; Nellen 1998: 8.

⁴³³ Cf. Hann 1984: 307; Fündling 1993/94a: 12; Giersberg 1998: 468.

Koreans have in Germany and its culture (Giersberg 1998: 468).⁴³⁴ Manke (1997: 28-29) believes that teachers and university lecturers of German need to utilise this latent interest in Germany as a European country to improve the programmes offered in Korea:

Da sich berufsbezogene Argumente für ein Deutschstudium nur schwer vertreten lassen, sollten wir versuchen, die bei vielen unserer Studenten mehr oder weniger latent vorhandene Faszination für Deutsch als einer Sprache, die in der Beschäftigung mit Europa und seinen Kulturen nützen kann, ernstzunehmen und diesem Interesse auf allen denkbaren Ebenen zu begegnen.

Many Korean students say they have chosen to study German because of their interest in the German culture, an interest (and approach) that is instilled in them by the traditional teaching methods. The fact that many Korean school pupils can sing Schubert's songs by heart is often praised in the German press as an example of the interest Koreans have in the German culture. However, according to Giersberg (1998: 467), this actually says more about the traditional Korean teaching methods and the Koreans' natural love of singing. Hann (1984: 307) warns that this image of Germans and Germany is becoming more modern and critical as Korea develops and becomes internationalised.

As in China and Japan, a number of *institutional factors* impact on the teaching and learning environment of foreign languages, including German, at both the secondary and tertiary levels in Korea. These include:⁴³⁵

- The limited previous language skills students have despite the fact that English is compulsory in high schools and a second foreign language is usually required;
- The entrance quota system, which tends to distort the situation because students may only take German because of the low number of points they gained as opposed to their actual subject of choice;
- The ranking of subjects in which German holds place four, along with Home Economics, Architecture, Food Science and Agricultural Science, after Computer Science, Medicine and Law, Management, Political Science and Psychology;
- Large class sizes (circa 50 to 60 pupils or students on average) where lessons must cover (at least in theory) relatively comprehensive content in two teaching hours per week;
- The inadequate textbooks and other teaching materials;
- The focus on written skills, grammar and translation (i.e. the dominance of the grammar-translation method of teaching) and the reception-oriented method of learning languages in Korea;

⁴³⁴ Cf. Yookee-Chun 1975: 3-4; Hann 1984: 314-315; Fündling 1993/94a: 12; Zimmer 1996: 84.

⁴³⁵ Cf. Chi 1975: 153-155; Hann 1984: 310, 312, 314-315; Lie 1984: 35, 37-38; Rhie 1987: 51-52; Nellen 1989: 12; Ahn 1989: 351; Song 1989; Spicker 1989: 396; Hong 1992: 78-79; Hofmann & Kim 1993/94: 62; Oh 1993/94: 3; Adelhoefer 1993/94b: 4, 1993/94c: 39-40; Koch 1996: 117, 131-132; Rhie 1997: 7, 1999: 61; Merkelbach 1998: 27-28; Wollert 1998: 11; Yang 1998a: 464; Paek 1999: 22-23.

- The small number of teaching hours allocated per week: German is supposed to be taught on average three hours per week (as compared to five hours for English) but this is not adhered to by many departments;
- The lack of language competencies (particularly oral) of the teaching staff;
- The fact that most teaching staff are required to produce a number of publications per year. However, many do so to the exclusion of developing new courses; and
- The fact that many educational facilities require upgrading.

One significant factor is that for a long time the foreign language teaching methodology in Korea emphasised the ability to translate texts and a thorough command of the grammar. This remains a major difficulty as there is still an emphasis on the grammar–translation method at all levels of the education system.⁴³⁶ Yang (1998a: 463-464) contends that because of the large class sizes, it is not easy to change the teaching methodology used, despite a series of changes in the curricula between 1982 and 1988, which encouraged the teaching of communicative skills. Despite some attempts to modernise the foreign language education and to improve the quality of teaching, Korea students are bound by the traditional passive, receptive learning of Confucian education (Adelhoefer 1993: 2). This had led to a general lack of communicative and individual learning methods. This is in stark contrast to the generally accepted notion that one can only learn a foreign language well when one has the opportunity to speak, to have real discussions and to articulate differing opinions in the language. Adelhoefer believes that more variety in the materials utilised in courses (for example, maps, papers, vocabulary book, original texts, and penfriend relationships via email) is one method of addressing this deficiency.

Korean pupils are not taught to think and work independently but rather to learn things by heart and to repeat what the teacher has presented to the class, and they often have great difficulties in answering freely. Constant testing is characteristic of high school life (Schröder 1996: 23-24; Koch 1996: 61; Fündling 1993/94a: 18; Kim 1993/94: 27). Kim continues that classes in Korean high schools depend on the pupils having prepared the content at home. This has consequences for foreign language teaching as pupils have often had to learn something off by heart before actually having had it explained to them. So pupils learn grammar and sentence structure exercises without being able to understand the structure of the language.

A crucial factor in the teaching and learning of German in Korea is the apparent lack of adequately trained teachers. Merkelbach (1998: 27-28) contends that many graduates of the four-year B.A. majoring in German at the universities of Education are not prepared to teach German as they are hardly able to formulate sentences or to ask simple questions. The causes of this include, in his opinion, a lack of teaching plans, a lack of an academic

⁴³⁶ Cf. Hann 1984: 308; Nellen 1989: 6; Seybel 1995: 12; Yang 1998a: 462.

forum for didactics and methodology, a lack of language abilities on the part of the professors, a lack of motivation on the students' part and a lack of individual initiative. Teachers can receive further training through intensive courses and trips to Germany, but this is not possible for all German teachers, especially those in the more rural or outlying areas, even with the numerous opportunities offered by the *Goethe-Institut*.⁴³⁷

Koch (1996: 58) describes the education system in Korea as being centrally controlled by the MOE. For instance, the curriculum, the textbooks and other teaching materials used in high schools are prescribed by the MOE.⁴³⁸ The Ministry also has a strong control and management function in universities, including the establishing of new institutions, the standards of the facilities, the setting of the student quota(s), the development of entry criteria, the awarding of qualifications, the development of the curriculum, the setting of fees and the selection of members of the faculty boards.⁴³⁹ In addition, the MOE censors all published literature, including German literature (Koch 1996: 105). All educational institutions, whether state or private, must abide by the MOE guidelines, which allow little room for alternative teaching programmes.

Another problem facing the discipline is the textbooks utilised in teaching. The 1975 KGG produced textbook for university students that is still used today and was only reworked in 1992. The same textbooks tend to be used at all universities. However, there is little relevance to the specific needs of students from other disciplines such as Law. In addition, universities often attempt to produce their own textbook(s), sometimes without the necessary knowledge of didactics. Other textbooks written by Korean Germanisten contain mainly literary texts as other forms of texts are hard to find given the limited resources available. Many Germanisten in Korea call for the urgent reworking and adaptation of the textbooks utilised in both schools and universities to suit the Korean teaching and learning situation and the changes in the global environment.⁴⁴⁰

Anders (1989: 330-334) describes the first impression of the university system, working conditions and institutional factors that confront the foreign language assistants when they are teaching in Korea as being deceiving.⁴⁴¹ The subject canon may be similar, the titles of colleagues are the same, and there are academic associations, journals and conferences. However, lectures are often cancelled not just on public holidays, but also to welcome the first year students and on days when former graduates come back to visit. University strikes often mean that military and sport festivals, which could not be celebrated at the time, have to be made up for. The missed lectures, however, are not made up for (Anders 1989: 330-332). This behaviour is not regarded as unusual or regrettable by the university

⁴³⁷ Cf. Seybel 1995: 12.

⁴³⁸ Cf. Lie 1987: 85; Kim 1993/94: 27; Rohs 2001: 5.

⁴³⁹ Cf. Hann 1984: 311.

⁴⁴⁰ Cf. Chi 1975: 153-155; Rhie 1987: 40; Choe 1991: 103; Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 55-56.

⁴⁴¹ Cf. Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 45-46, 1995: 16-17; Franz 1983/84: 34-35; Fündling 1993/94b.

management or professors. Fourth year classes are sometimes completely missed or cancelled as the students need this time to look for employment. Students are often assisted in this search by the teaching staff because the professors are responsible for assisting students not only to complete their studies, but also afterwards. The subsequent behaviour and success or otherwise of a student reflects on the professors (and can even be punished by monetary fines!).⁴⁴² Nellen (1989: 14) too describes the external factors impacting on teaching programmes, including an acute shortage of media and equipment at some universities and classrooms that are too hot in summer and too cold in winter. He says that this often means there is only half the semester or teaching time left to cover the content of a course.⁴⁴³

Linguistic differences between German and Korean are an additional factor. Zimmer (1996: 91) maintains that interference and phonetical problems (amongst others) cause difficulties when teaching German in Korea. Korean students are often fearful of speaking in German because of the (over-exaggerated and unjustified) fear of making mistakes.⁴⁴⁴

In his review of Andreas Bruch and Alexander Thomas' book, *Beruflich in Südkorea*, Adelhoefer (1997) describes the major **social and cultural factors** underlying the Korean culture, which impact significantly on the teaching and learning of foreign languages and on business relationships between Korean and German business people, for example. These include the hierarchial social structure, the necessity to 'keep face', an emphasis on relationships (between young and old, man and wife, etc.), the emphasis on 'the group', loyalty, spontaneity and flexibility, the traditional gender role differences and the separation of family life and career.

Koreans' sense of values and attitudes have long been dominated by Confucianism and more recently have also been influenced by Westernisation, often creating a contradictory mixture of traditional Korean values and Western values (Franz 1983/84: 35-36; Fündling 1993/94a: 17). Koch (1996: 87) quotes the Korean Development Institute's paper *Korea Year 2000* (1986: 70) as saying:

The often contradictory mixture of traditional Korean values and Western values continues to characterize the Koreans' way of thinking. Korea's traditional, basically Confucian, ethics are predominantly emotionalistic, setting forth absolute norms for personal attitudes and human relations. Thus it mainly involves teaching and learning what to do and what not to do, without raising the questions as to 'why'. By contrast, Western thoughts are primarily intellectualistic and analytic, emphasizing rational approaches and utilitarian values.

⁴⁴² Cf. Franz 1983/84: 39-40; Lie 1987: 87-88; Koch 1996: 99.

⁴⁴³ Cf. Menke 1999.

⁴⁴⁴ Cf. Franz 1985: 122-129; Lie 1992: 195-202, 1996: 136; Hofmann & Kim 1993/94: 65ff; Cheon-Kostrzewa & Kostrzewa 1995: 41-46; Bucher 1997; Rohs 2001: 6-14.

These values and attitudes are evident throughout Korean society (Fündling 1993/94a: 17):⁴⁴⁵

Die konfuzianischen Regeln eines geordneten Über- und Untereinander, die sich an Standeszugehörigkeit und Alter orientiert haben, bestimmen auch heute noch das Familien- und Arbeitsleben in Korea. Doch an die Stelle der alten Klassenschränken sind heute Dienststellungen, Ausbildungsstufen und Vermögensunterschiede getreten.

Nellen (1989: 8-9) and Yang (1998a: 461-462, 1998b: 2-3) contend that the conflict between the Confucian education traditions and the system adapted from that imposed by the Japanese have resulted in the present education system. The traditionally hierarchial and patriarchal social system is reflected in the education system and traditional values (righteousness, distinction, order and loyalty) are still encouraged by the MOE. Despite this modernisation and Westernisation have occurred in many fields. An increasing amount of western values, such as Christianity and industrialisation, are becoming evident. Additionally, the external uniformity previously required of pupils (including compulsory uniform and prescribed hairstyles, length, etc.) was abolished in 1981 (Nellen 1989: 8-9; Koch 1996: 111).

Franz (1983/84: 35) contends that the conflict between the traditional cultural values system and the Western, modern influence impacts directly on the Germanistik discipline:

Die koreanische Germanistik ist somit von ihrer Natur her der Spannung der Konfrontation zweier verschiedener Kulturkreise ausgesetzt. Das Resultat dieser Konfrontation, die wissenschaftlichen Leistungen der Koreanischen Germanistik, ist demnach auch das Produkt des unterschiedlich starken Einflusses verschiedener geistig-kultureller Elemente.

The differences in the fundamental thinking and behaviour of Korean students (and the wider society) have consequences for the academic environment (Franz 1983/84: 36). Critical analysis of a topic is carried out under quite different conditions from those in the Western world, for instance. The breaking down of a whole work or text as a means of understanding it, analysis as a prerequisite to understanding and interpretative criticism are abhorrent to Korean students. This has greater impact on the Humanities subjects than the Sciences, for example, as they are concerned with thoughts, feelings and opinions.

Pupils and students are not taught or expected to work independently or to express their individuality, but rather to work as part of the 'group' or to belong to and promote the group's interests (Nellen 1989: 10; Fündling 1993/94a: 12-19).⁴⁴⁶ Students tend not to answer questions or put themselves in the limelight because this may endanger the 'group'. Pupils do what the teacher says and do not follow their own interests. This results in problems for

⁴⁴⁵ Cf. Franz 1983/84: 36-37; Hofmann & Kim 1993/94: 59-60.

⁴⁴⁶ Cf. Schröder 1995: 9-10; 1996: 23-24.

native German-speaking teachers and for modern foreign language teaching as a whole (Nellen 1989: 10).⁴⁴⁷

Unterordnung, höfliche Zurückhaltung, beflissene Hilfsbereitschaft, Sprachbarrieren, ungeübte Ausdrucksfähigkeit usw. Der Deutsche spricht direkt und einfach, der Koreaner kann sich das bei einem Höhergestellten (= Lehrer) nicht vorstellen; der Deutsche sagt seine eigene Meinung, ein Koreaner tut das nicht, er hört auf das und richtet sich nach dem, was die anderen sagen und tun.

Hofmann and Kim (1993/94: 59-60) believe that the difficulties Korean students have in expressing their own opinions openly in front of teachers and in asking questions can be traced back to the ongoing influence of Confucianism in Korean society and education system and to their experiences in schools. Students today may want to ask questions or express their opinions but often do not know how to. Fündling (1993/94: 18-19) says that it is vital that teaching staff, particularly the foreign language assistants, understand the typical behavioural patterns and expectations of Korean students.⁴⁴⁸ For instance, the concept of losing face holds much more importance in Asian cultures because it can mean the loss of social and personal reputation.

II.3.4 Germanistik and Innovative Developments in the Field of German Studies.

II.3.4.1 The development of the discipline.

According to Schmidt (1996: 30), the pioneers of the Germanistik discipline in Korea include Lee Mi-Rok who graduated in 1928 in Munich and An Ho-sang who graduated in 1929 in Jena and who was the first Korean to attain a PhD in Germany. At the same time Cho Hi-Soon, Kim Chin-sup, Pak Yong-Chul, Suh Hong-Suk (and later Kwon Hwan) graduated from various Tokyo universities. When they returned to Korea, they did not have positions in Germanistik, but despite this laid the groundwork for the discipline. Some worked as journalists for Seoul papers and produced a special issue for the 100th anniversary of Goethe's death. Others worked as authors and wrote essays on German literature (mainly on Heine and Goethe). Schmidt (1996: 30) believes they could almost be defined as true examples of *interkulturelle Germanistik* as they did not study German literature in translation but analysed it in comparison with their own Korean literature. Through the German language and literature they chose to step back from the Japanese dominance of all aspects of their life and thus attempted to preserve and further develop their own Korean culture and identity.

After the Japanese occupation of Korea, German became established as a subject at Korean universities. In 1946 the first German department was opened at the SNU and this remained the only university to offer a programme in German for the next decade (Rhie

⁴⁴⁷ Cf. Hann 1985.

⁴⁴⁸ Cf. Hofmann and Kim 1993/94: 59-60; Anders 1989: 333-334.

1987: 38). It would appear that reading, writing and grammar instruction were the cornerstones of lessons and no native speakers were employed as *LektorInnen* at that point in time (Menke 1998: 8). The focus of literature studies tended to be on the Classicism and Romanticism periods. Graduates of this department had a great impact on Germanistik in Korea.⁴⁴⁹

The Korean War (1950 to 1953) temporarily disturbed the further development of more German departments. The number of departments, therefore, remained small until the rapid expansion of the tertiary education system in the early 1970s. Despite this Korean scholars (supported by the *Goethe-Institut*, the *DAAD* and the *Humboldt* Foundation) continued their studies in Germany in the late 1950s and many attained doctorates. According to Rhie (1987: 39), they returned not only with subject specific knowledge but also with increased self-confidence. They were no longer reliant on a knowledge of Japanese and on Japanese textbooks, but could introduce materials directly from German-speaking Europe. In addition, an average of three to five Masters degrees in German were awarded in the 1960s and 1970s by Korean universities.

The rapid expansion of the discipline from 1979 to 1981, when over 20 new departments were established, was due to the rapid expansion in the education system overall, and to the fact that the then Education Minister had gained his PhD in Germany (Schmidt 1996: 31; Son 1999: 567). By 1986 there were circa 15 000 students studying German as a major, circa 300 professorial staff and a further 400 teaching staff in the 66 German and seven German teacher education departments, three subject or academic oriented organisations (*Koreanische Gesellschaft für Germanistik (KGG)*, *Koreanischer Germanisten- und Deutschlehrerverband (KGDV)* and the *Koreanischer Erziehungsverein für Germanistik*) and four author-oriented societies (Goethe, Kafka, Büchner and Brecht) (Yim 1986: 111; Rhie 1987: 39; Lie 1987: 83-84; Ahn 1989: 350-351). By the mid 1990s there were over 75 departments (including eight German teacher education departments) at over 60 universities with approximately 2000 new students beginning a degree in German each year.⁴⁵⁰ There were approximately 350 professors of German and numerous *freie Lektoren*. In addition, circa 2000 students graduated each year with a degree in Germanistik during this period (Yang 1997a: 55, 1997b).

As a discipline, Germanistik had expanded dramatically within a very short time period, and had, at least in terms of numbers, a relatively important place in universities in Korea (Yim 1986: 111-112). The numbers of students studying foreign languages as their major in 1995 were as follows (Schmidt 1996: 32):

⁴⁴⁹ Cf. Yim 1986: 111; Rhie 1987: 40.

⁴⁵⁰ At least eight universities had two German departments, one in the Humanities faculty and one in College of Education. See also section II.3.4.2.

	Student numbers	Department numbers
German	13425	66
English	32880	109
French	12331	57
Spanish	3137	13
Chinese	14866	74
Japanese	11209	56

Those studying foreign languages within a teaching major were as follows:

	Student numbers	Department numbers
German	453	8
English	5861	33
French	532	8
Spanish	-----	-----
Chinese	1	1
Japanese	1027	7

Although these appear to be relatively large numbers of students, at the state teachers' colleges no students were allowed to graduate in German in 1995 as no new teachers of German were being employed at high schools. Those students had to rely on papers in their supporting subjects (Schmidt 1996: 32).

The present development of Germanistik in Korea is closely dependent on the historical and social context of the discipline and on the training of the teaching staff. There are three distinct generations of Germanisten in Korea.⁴⁵¹ The first generation grew up under the influence of the Japanese and studied (many in Japan) at the end of the 1940s and 1950s. They were the pioneers of the discipline in Korea, beginning to build the discipline and to teach German literature in Korea after 1945.⁴⁵² They translated German literature only into Korean, and the focus was on correct understanding of the written language, the ability to translate and on the correct knowledge of syntax (Hann 1984: 309-310).

Many books were quickly translated into Korean in the early days after the war because of the lack of teaching materials in Korean (Schmidt 1996: 34-35). There were only very few professors of Germanistik. Many of the teaching staff were only teachers, if they had any experience of German at all, or were representatives of other subjects who also knew German. Japanese translations of original works were often used because that is what the staff had studied themselves and were accustomed to. In this way Japan, whether consciously or unconsciously and whether wanted or not, influenced many areas of the discipline. Schmidt (1996: 34) also found that this generation of Germanisten still regard one of the most important (to the survival of the discipline) tasks of Korean Germanistik to be the production of high quality translations, although no longer through Japanese or Chinese.

⁴⁵¹ Cf. Hann 1984: 310; Rhie 1987: 35-36; Schmidt 1996: 32-33; Koch 1996: 99-100.

⁴⁵² Cf. Ahn 1989: 347; Yim 1986: 111.

The second generation studied in the 1960s and the early 1970s. Most graduated with PhDs in Germany. Their theses dealt mainly with German authors such as Barlach, Büchner, Brecht, Hauptmann, Hebbel, Hesse, Th. and H. Mann, Kafka, Novalis and Rilke. The knowledge they had gained during their experiences in Germany introduced a kind of reform to the study of German at Korean universities, including an increase in the academic niveau of literary publications, the first translation of German secondary literature and a general improvement in the translation work (Hann 1984: 310).

The third generation attended school after 1945, studied at the end of the 1970s and in the 1980s. They no longer use Chinese or Japanese as the language of the discipline. Many now have Masters or PhDs from universities in German-speaking countries and are well informed about Germanistik and the issues surrounding the discipline internationally. They have increasingly assumed an important role in the discipline in the late 1980s and 1990s, giving impulse in particular to the (until then) neglected topics such as linguistics (Hann 1984: 310; Schmidt 1996: 35).

Hann (1984: 309) describes the emphasis of Germanistik in Korea as being and having been:

in der Übersetzertätigkeit und in der Herausgabe von Lehrbüchern für
Hochschulen und Oberschulen für den Deutschunterricht.

The production of textbooks is financially attractive for high schools as these publications are produced in large numbers of volumes, whereas the translations of literary works usually only appear in runs of one thousand.

Similarly Yang (1998b: 9-10) contends that the study of literature and the translation of German literary works was and is dominant in Germanistik in Korea.⁴⁵³ The number of publications of German literary works translated into Korean is surprisingly large and includes 169 translations of Hesse's works (including 35 *Demian*, 19 *Unterm Rad* and 19 *Narziss und Goldmund*) and 78 translations of Goethe's works (including 39 of *Die Leiden des jungen Werther* and 30 *Faust*). Most of these were not translated directly from the German original but rather from Japanese translations.⁴⁵⁴

Yang (1998b: 12) himself studied *Faust Teil 1* and *Die Leiden des jungen Werther* by Goethe, *Wilhelm Tell* und *Die Räuber* by Schiller, *Kleider machen Leute* by Keller, *Sämtliche Novellen* by Kleist and *Der Prozeß* by Kafka in German. Typically the world-renowned works, mainly the classical and romantic texts and authors, such as Keller, Grillparzer, Storm, Kafka, Th. Mann and Hesse, were literally translated word for word and the students

⁴⁵³ Cf. Yim 1986: 121-122; Nellen 1989: 13; Ahn 1989: 345-355; Schmidt 1996: 35; Bak & Kim 1997: 9; Kaufmann 1998: 498-499.

⁴⁵⁴ Cf. Han 1991.

did not proceed further until the meaning of every word and the grammar rules associated with each sentence were understood.⁴⁵⁵

Some in the discipline regard the concentration on the classical and romantic authors as lacking, particularly as authors such as Handke, Walser and Johnson are neglected. Yim (1986: 120) found that one of the reasons Brecht is relatively unknown in Korea is that his main works were not allowed to be introduced and discussed until recently for political reasons.⁴⁵⁶ According to Rhie (1987: 40), the canon of literature taught and researched remained static for a long time. The education of the university lecturers and the library holdings at the SNU, which consisted mainly of classical works, were significant factors in this. Rhie continues that it was the younger Germanisten, who gained PhDs in the 1970s in Germany, who returned and helped to expand the canon of research, introducing, for example, 20th century authors, such as Kafka, Th. Mann, Hesse, Rilke, Benn, Celan, Eich, Frisch, Dürrenmatt and Handke.

The increasing number of students also increased the demand for wider literary offerings and in 1983 the first German literary series was published by a Korean publishing house (Yang 1998b: 12-13). The 14 volume series included commentaries by Korean Germanisten and the following works and authors: Kafka's *Der Prozeß*, Hesse's *Demian*, Hauptmann's *Bahnwärter Thiel*, Storm's *Immensee* and other texts, Schnitzler's *Die Fremde* and other texts, Keller's *Kleider machen Leute*, Büchner's *Woyzeck* and other texts and *Hermann und Dorothea* and other texts, Goethe's *Faust Teil 1*, Th. Mann's *Tonio Kröger* and other texts, Frisch's *Homo Faber*, Dürrenmatt's *Romulus der Große* and other texts, Eich's *Vier Hörspiele* and Böll's *Wo warst du, Adam?* In 1986 a second series was published and Yang (1998b: 13) says that this was evidence that the Germanistik discipline in Korea had increased not only in quantity, but also in quality. The second series included authors and works such as: Lessing's *Emilia Galotti* Tieck's *Die Märchen aus dem Phantasmus*, Hölderlin's *Hyperion*, Droste-Hülshoff's *Die Judenbuche*, Meyer's *Der Heilige*, Hauptmann's *Vor Sonnenaufgang*, Böll's *Und sagte kein einziges Wort*, Lenz' *Ausgewählte Erzählungen* and *Der Hofmeister und die Soldaten*, Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*, Grillparzer's *Der arme Spielmann* und *Sappho*, Hesse's *Steppenwolf*, and Strauß' *Trilogie des Wiedersehen*.

Kim (1992: 136-137) divides the reception of German literary works in Korea into two periods. The first (1945 to 1965) concentrated mainly on works regarded as being relatively simple in language and content. For example, the Grimm brothers' *Märchen*, Borchert's *Draußen vor der Tür*, Storm's *Immensee*, Schnitzler's *Die Frau des Weisen*, Zweig's *Die Mondscheingasse* and well-known literary works by Goethe, Kafka, Th. Mann, Heine, Hesse, Nietzsche, Rilke and Carrossa. The second period (1965 to 1985) expanded the spectrum of works translated. Th. Mann's works were translated numerous times (particularly *Tonio*

⁴⁵⁵ Cf. Kim 1992: 132.

⁴⁵⁶ Cf. S.-H. Choi 1991.

Kröger, *Der Tod in Venedig*, *Felix Krull*, *Die Buddenbrooks* and *Der Zauberberg*). Böll became popular as his social criticism found favour within Korean society. Büchner, Brecht, Dürrenmatt, Frisch and Handke were also popular in student theatre, which led to the rapid acceptance of German drama. The most popular genres were poetry, drama and prose forms such as the *Erzählungen*. Due to the political situation until 1988, East German authors were hardly studied at all. In 1988 Korea introduced the so-called 'North Policy' that brought about a degree of political liberalisation. After this Brecht and the East German authors such as Biermann, Seghers and Ch. Wolff were officially permitted to be researched, translated and taught.

According to Yim (1986: 115), the literary canon covered by teaching programmes in the 1980s was diverse and schematically organised according to centuries, epochs and genre. He admits that this could lead to teaching staff emphasising their personal preferences.⁴⁵⁷ However the majority of staff are guided in the selection of texts by a set of generally accepted criteria. Preference is given to those authors and works which belong to so-called 'world literature'. The older German literature (that is, until the Baroque period) is studied within the framework of courses on the history of German literature, while the more recent epochs from the Enlightenment onwards are studied in the form of exercises covering representative authors of the given period (Yim 1986: 115-116; Kim 1992: 131). Preferred authors and works are easily identified: Lessing (*Emilia Galotti*, *Minna von Barnhelm*, *Nathan der Weise*), Goethe (*Die Leiden des jungen Werther*, *Faust*, *Wilhelm Meister*), Schiller (*Wilhelm Tell* und *die Räuber*, *Kabale und Liebe*, *Don Carlos*), and Kleist (*Der zerbrochene Krug*). Heine, Büchner, Fontane, Hauptmann and Rilke are most often studied in the third and fourth years of study.⁴⁵⁸ In the reading literary text courses for beginners primarily narrative works of the 19th and 20th centuries are utilised, such as the novella of *bürgerliche Realismus* and the works of Th. Mann, Kafka, Hesse, Brecht (his short stories) and Böll. The dramas of Dürrenmatt, Frisch and Handke are also well regarded and are not only popular texts in courses, but are often performed by student theatre groups and in mainstream Korean theatre (Yim 1986: 116). While the range of authors and works studied and researched has diversified during the past two decades, it would appear that the traditional literary canon was (and continues to be) utilised in Germanistik programmes in Korea.

Yim (1986: 108) regards it as being difficult to transfer the eurocentric Germanistik into the Korean context as the reception of literature is dependent on the local historical, social and political situation.⁴⁵⁹ For instance in Korea the older German literature, such as that of the Baroque period, is not studied much at all as it is of very little interest to Koreans given their social and political situation. The socially critical works and authors of German literature

⁴⁵⁷ Cf. Franz *et al.* 1984: 32; Nellen 1989: 8.

⁴⁵⁸ Cf. Koch 1996: 100.

⁴⁵⁹ Cf. Choe 1992.

were until recently only permitted to be studied with reservation and critical distance. Yim (1986: 116) considers the increasing amount of socially critical works by authors, such as Brecht, Grass, Böll and H. Mann, to be a reflection of the changes in Korea's society and identity. According to Yang (1998b: 10), the younger generation of Germanisten have translated and studied a more diverse group of authors and works. The fact that the younger generation do not automatically understand Japanese as their parents' generation did has influenced the choice of authors and books. *Zum Verständnis der modernen deutschen Literatur*, a collection of sixteen works by the younger Korean Germanisten was published in 1984 and represented the changing face of Korean Germanistik, in that it includes articles on literary theories (Rhie 1987: 43-44).⁴⁶⁰

Hur (1992: 101-102) contends that Korean Germanistik needs literary studies, which take into account the social conflicts and changes of the times, such as the problems resulting from the drastic and rapid industrialisation of Korea. Against this background many Korean Germanisten questioned the relevance of Korean Germanistik and attempted to redefine the discipline during the 1980s (Hur 1992: 103):

Die koreanische Germanistik will aus dem weltabgewandten philologischen Schlummer der politischen Abstinenz erwachen, ihre historisch-gesellschaftliche Aufgaben neu bestimmen und ihre wissenschaftliche Funktion zeitgemäß konkretisieren.

In a 1987 study of 45 German departments aimed at ascertaining how the German programmes were devised, Professor Cho found that literary studies was the most important component comprising 43 percent of the programme.⁴⁶¹ Language courses formed the next most important part of the programme with 28 percent, followed by linguistics with 15 percent, culture with seven percent, literary theory and criticism with five percent and didactics with two percent. Cho further analysed the programmes to see which literary classes were most commonly offered.⁴⁶² The emphasis of German literature courses offered was clearly on German Literary History, German Drama, German Literature of the 18th Century, German Novels and German Poetry. Courses in German Literary Theory and Criticism were also offered, but to a lesser degree.

The findings of an analysis of 19 Masters programmes were similar: of the 563 credits necessary to gain an M.A., 202 were required in language and linguistics courses while 361 were required in literary courses (Yang 1998b: 11-12). Menke and Nord (1996: 4) believe the topics taught in German programmes, in which the students have no interest or which have no relevance to later employment, are taught because the teaching staff studied at a time when Germanistik programmes focused on the traditional literary and language studies.

⁴⁶⁰ Cf. Hur 1992: 101-102.

⁴⁶¹ Cf. Cho 1987: 7.

⁴⁶² This study was restricted to the titles of the courses as opposed to the actual content of courses.

Rhie (1987: 44) describes how literary studies discussions have been the central focus of at least four *Koreanische Gesellschaft für Germanistik (KGG)* conferences, but that discussion of literary studies methodology and theories has not been a high priority. However, since the beginning of the 1980s a number of monographs have been published on literary studies theories, and changes in the translation work of Korean Germanisten have begun to take place. For example, not so many literary works are being translated, but rather the emphasis is on the translation of literary theories. Several attempts to introduce didactics of German language and literature as an academic subject have been made since the 1960s. In 1990/1991 the German department at the College of Education at SNU introduced general didactics as part of its curriculum, for example. This was, however, not specific to German and led to some difficulties (Cho 1992: 55).

A pivotal point of the Korean Germanistik research and academic conferences is the *KGG*, which is the largest and oldest Germanistik organisation in Korea (with over 300 members). Since its foundation in 1959 the association has published the *Koreanische Zeitschrift für Germanistik* at least once a year.⁴⁶³ Articles in this journal mirror reflect the range of research occurring in Korean Germanistik (Rhie 1987: 41). For a long time it was the only academic journal which Germanisten could publish work in. Rhie's summary (1987: 41-42) of the authors, periods and fields covered by articles in the journal between 1959 and 1986 gives the following picture. Kafka, Goethe and Th. Mann were the most researched authors followed by Hesse, Kleist, Hauptmann, Schiller, Novalis, Dürrenmatt, Büchner, Hölderlin, Musil, Frisch. Others researched included Brecht, Fontane, Nietzsche, Heine, Celan, Grillparzer, Böll, Borchert, Döblin, Lenz, Weiss, Hebbel, Storm, Keller, Lasker-Schüler, Schnitzler, Hofmannsthal, Hebel, Kaiser, Sachs and Moritz. From this it would appear that the authors of the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries are the most commonly researched. Middle High German literature is hardly researched at all in Korea, mainly as there are very few Germanisten with PhDs in this field. Linguistic research forms only one fifth of published research works, which mirrors the percentages of literary studies staff to linguistics staff, according to Rhie (1987: 43).

While the spectrum of research includes all areas of newer German literature, there is a clear emphasis on the so-called 'classics', such as Brecht, Th. Mann and Hesse. For instance, 37 percent of the 237 literary studies theses completed between 1945 and 1982 dealt with only five authors: Kafka, Th. Mann, Hölderlin, Dürrenmatt and Rilke (Ahn 1989: 354-355; Schmidt 1996: 35). Ahn continues that there has been a change in the sense that socially critical works and authors such as Brecht, Grass and Böll have been introduced since the 1970s. Very little literary criticism or few theories are included in the research of Korean Germanisten. Research into linguistic topics includes Chomsky's theories, dependence grammar, language content theories (*Sprachinhaltsforschung*), comparative

⁴⁶³ Some authors (including Yim 1986) refer to the title of this journal as *Die Deutsche Literatur*.

linguistics (Korean–German) and increasingly *DaF* as in Japan. However, literary studies still dominate the discipline and research in Korea.

The diversification of research topics is reflected in the increasingly diverse forms of publications since 1975. For instance, dissertations are now published in book form, and monographs and complete works are also now published (Yim 1986: 120-121):

Sie wollen in erster Linie die Bedürfnisse der studentischen Leserschaft erfüllen, stellen aber zugleich den Nachholbedarf in den wissenschaftlichen Grundlagen für die koreanische Germanistik und ein Bemühen um deren Selbstverständnis dar, die sich lange Zeit genügsam und hauptsächlich mit Sprachunterricht sowie Übersetzung belletristischer Literatur beschäftigt hat.

Researchers and academics have also been faced with questions from the younger generation and a critical public as to the meaning and objectives of a discipline strongly focused on literature and the social function of literature (Yim 1986: 121).

In the 1980s the publication possibilities for Germanistik research began to diversify in that Germanisten began to publish academic works in the universities' internal journals and in other journals. Most universities now expect all teaching staff to contribute to the university yearbook. Various universities publish their own Germanistik journal, such as the *Zeitschrift für Deutsche Sprache* published by the Keimyung University in Taegu. Others publish journals four times a year, for example, the Korean University's *Der Turm* (Hann 1984: 309, 317). The yearbook of the Korean Culture and Arts Foundation gives an overview of research activities and results of all research in the field, but Rhie (1987: 41) says that it is hard to give an accurate overview of the research activities of Germanisten in Korea.

As the quantitative expansion of Germanistik at the tertiary level led to the diversification of research fields, several new academic associations were formed, including the *Koreanischer Deutschlehrerverband* (KDV) (which recently became the *Koreanischer Germanisten- und Deutschlehrerverband* (KGDV)) and in 1983, the *Koreanischer Erziehungsverein für Germanisten*, which focuses on research in *DaF* and foreign language didactics (Yim 1986: 121). The former publishes *Litera* and the latter publishes the *Koreanische Zeitschrift für Deutschunterricht*. According to Yim (1986: 119), the important authors needed to be researched more intensively and in a more systematic fashion, so in 1982 on the 150th anniversary of Goethe's death the *Koreanische Goethe Gesellschaft* was formed and a year later the *Koreanische Kafka Gesellschaft*. The former demonstrated the interest of Koreans in the German classics by publishing two volumes, *Studien zu Goethe* and *Studien zu Faust* in 1984 and 1986 respectively. The latter published a collected works volume in 1984, which included important articles by Korean Germanisten about Kafka.⁴⁶⁴ Both associations appear to have signalled a change in the research in Korea. Since then other author oriented societies have been established. These associations want not only to intensify the

⁴⁶⁴ Cf. Rhie 1987: 43.

research on particular authors, but also to base the translation work more solidly in the academic context. This trend is adding to the diversification of and increase in Germanistik research in Korea (Rhie 1987: 43).

One of the most pressing and difficult tasks, which the discipline has had to cope with in Korea, has been the reworking of reliable secondary literature and dictionaries. The German-Korean dictionary from 1962 (compiled by Professors Hur and Kang) appeared in 1983 in a revised and expanded issue. As a result of a ten-year project between over one hundred Germanisten organised by the KGG, a comprehensive Korean-German dictionary appeared in 1982. A year later a working group of the KGG began work on a Korean-German dictionary based on the six volume *Großes Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache* (*Duden*) and other works. This daring project was headed by Hur and financed by the MOE. It was originally planned that this would be finished in the late 1980s, however, this was not published until 1995 (Yim 1986: 120; Rhie 1987: 40).

Some believe that the Korean Germanistik is not only concerned with the reception and spread of the German language and literature, but also sees the expansion of Korean national literature and philology through contact with and exposure to the German cultures as an important field of research. Yim (1986: 122) contends that:

Die eigentliche Existenzberechtigung der Germanistik in Korea ist vielmehr in der kritisch-selektiven Erweiterung des Erfahrungshorizonts der Koreaner und in der Befruchtung der koreanischen Kultur zu sehen.

II.3.4.2 Germanistik versus German Teacher Training.

In general, German departments in the city (e.g. Seoul) and in the country (e.g. Taegu, Pusan, Kwangju and Taejon) are staffed by four to six (Assistant, Associate or Full) professors, but are different in content, structure and delivery of their German programmes (Hann 1984: 313; Lie 1987: 87). SNU and the Hankuk Foreign Languages University (HUFS) are the exceptions as they are much larger departments. There are 19 state universities and 65 private universities of differing niveau. There are normally two strands to the Germanistik discipline: Germanistik and German teacher training. Eight universities currently have two German departments, one within the Faculty or College of Education and the other within the Humanities Faculty or College of Liberal Arts and Sciences (Lie 1984: 36).

The German department at the College of Education is usually called *Abteilung für deutsche Didaktik* and the other 'Department of German Language & Literature'.⁴⁶⁵ The difference between the two is the curriculum. German teacher trainees must complete a number of courses in pedagogy and a practical section at a middle or high school. Of the 140 credits necessary for a Bachelor's degree, 19 must be in pedagogy courses. In addition, education

⁴⁶⁵ English titles for academic divisions or departments are common in Korea.

students at all state universities receive financial assistance from the government during their study. They then receive a four-year posting to a middle or high school. If they do not accept this position they are not allowed to graduate or their degree is annulled. If they cannot be assigned a position, they are required to obtain another position, for instance, in an office or bank, until a position can be assigned to them. Those at private Colleges of Education are required to sit a state examination if they wish to obtain a teaching position (Lie 1984: 36-37).

Despite differences in the content, teaching and structure of degree programmes, there are some common factors. German is offered as a major, supporting and optional subject (for those students who choose to learn a language during the first two or four semesters) for the four-year B.A. (or B.E. if within the College of Education). Courses in German have an average of three teaching hours per week and most courses except the language courses are taught in Korean (Lie 1984: 35, 37; Hann 1984: 313; Kim 1993/94: 32-33). The curriculum for the major subject is prescribed (by the department in accordance with the MOE guidelines) so there is not much student choice even at higher levels (Kim 1993/94: 33-34).

The first year of study is essentially a *studium generale* with students completing courses in Korean, Korean History, National Ethics, English and introductory courses to the relevant subject(s) such as German grammar and German translation techniques. Specialisation in (the major subject) German begins in the second year with the literary studies courses and or linguistics courses (depending on the university and the emphasis of the programme) being accompanied by compulsory courses in translation, German literary history, German history and or conversational and pronunciation exercises in a language laboratory. In the third year, the (until then identical) degree programmes for teacher training and Germanistik are divided. Those students majoring in Germanistik specialise in literary studies (including the genre, theories and the translation of extracts of representative works of the classical and more contemporary periods), essay practice, German in the media, *Germanistische Übungen*, sometimes Business German and courses in German linguistics (such as German language history, German syntax, semantics and phonetics) during the third and fourth years. Trainee teachers are required to complete a four-week practical section at a school and to complete four semesters of educational studies. Conversation and area studies are optional subjects at this level. At the end of the fourth year students are normally required to submit a significant piece of written work.⁴⁶⁶

While German language courses form an integral part of the programmes offered, integrated language courses (like those taught by the *Goethe-Institut*) are not commonplace. Instead the language courses are normally divided up into smaller units, such as conversation,

⁴⁶⁶ Cf. Lie 1984: 37, 1987: 88; Yim 1986: 113; Nellen 1989: 13.

grammar, listening comprehension, writing and reading comprehension, which are taught in Korean in many cases (Yim 1986: 115; Yang (1998a: 464). Each course is taught as an isolated unit with little cooperation between colleagues and often using outdated and methodologically unsuitable textbooks and materials. Many students of Germanistik attend the language courses offered by the *Goethe-Institut* (in addition to their university studies) in order to improve the standard of their language competencies. Koch (1996: 139-140, 174, 178-179) found that 58 percent of those students questioned in her study took private German language lessons during their degrees as the universities were not providing good quality language courses.⁴⁶⁷ It is clear that the universities need to improve the standard of the language courses offered to attract and retain students and to improve the overall profile of the discipline in Korea. Koch regards this as not only fundamental to the success of the discipline, but also as an opportunity for the discipline to capitalise on given the current situation. Particularly as increasing numbers of students wishing to study in Germany offer the German departments the opportunity to boost their numbers by offering attractive and innovative language courses to these students.

Most German department teaching programmes include at least exercises in linguistics, however, only a few departments offer full courses in linguistics.⁴⁶⁸ According to Lie (1984: 37, 1987: 88), such courses (if offered) usually include an introduction to linguistics, German language history, syntax, semantics and phonetics, although increasingly the grammar models, such as dependence grammar and transformation grammar, are being studied. Yim (1986: 115) found that at most universities linguistics forms only 15 to 20 percent of the overall programme. While there is a trend towards recognising the value of linguistics in an increasing number of departments, the teaching staff need to be taught more about linguistics in their studies.

Literature studies continue to be the dominant emphasis of Germanistik programmes throughout Korea. At Dongguk University (Seoul and Kyungju), for instance, the structure of the programme for students majoring in German is described as follows:⁴⁶⁹

The major in German is designed to introduce students to literary history and to the work of major German writers to acquaint them with a variety of historical periods and geographical, cultural regions of German language and writing, to create an awareness of methods and theories of literary analysis, and to provide continued training in German literature.

According to Adelhoefer (1993/94c: 42), the degree programme is typically divided into literary and linguistic studies, and the compulsory components of the degree include classes in grammar, texts, essays, literary history, conversation and culture.⁴⁷⁰ Rhie (1987: 45)

⁴⁶⁷ Cf. Rhie 1987: 45.

⁴⁶⁸ Cf. Nellen 1989: 14-15.

⁴⁶⁹ Cf. <http://www.dongguk.ac.kr> (1 June 1998).

⁴⁷⁰ Cf. Kuh 1984: 50; Yim 1986: 113-114.

describes the curriculum of Germanistik programmes a stringing together of epochs, literary trends and genre, which have no relationship to related subjects or disciplines.

In his study of the effects of the 1995 reforms on German programmes from the perspective of foreign language assistants, Wollert (1998: 12-18) found that a constant problem for those teaching in Korea is that they receive little guidance as to the content required. It would appear that there is no systematic orientation of programmes to the curriculum guidelines. Language courses in the past have been divided between the German and Korean teaching staff: the Koreans teaching primarily the grammar and reading exercises and the Germans the language practice. However, the lack of consultation (although it allows great freedom and choice) means there is little possibility of comprehensive German lessons.⁴⁷¹

According to Franz (1983/84: 39) and Nellen (1989: 14), titles of the courses offered in German departments are often vague so as to allow professors the freedom to teach what they want. However, Franz and Nellen also consider this to be a reflection of the poorly designed curriculum of degree programmes. For instance, students in the first year translate and are examined on Nietzsche's *Also sprach Zarathustra*, while in the third year they struggle with simple German sentences in communication lessons. Or in *Wirtschaftsdeutsch* they read Frisch and in *Dramenkunde*, a drama (in translation) is retranslated in class by the professor.

After the four-year degree students are supposed to be able to communicate in German, have a linguistic understanding of the German language and have an understanding of German culture and literature. Yang (1998b: 9) contends that Korean students must be able to understand the German language before they understand the culture, however the stark contrast between the two cultures makes this process even more difficult:⁴⁷²

Zuerst müssen sie die fremde Sprache und dann die fremde Literatur und die fremden soziokulturellen Voraussetzungen kennenlernen. Das ist eine vielfache Belastung sowohl für Studenten als auch für Hochschullehrer in [...] Korea.

Yim (1986: 114) says it is hard to determine how well the objectives in the curriculum are actually met as:

die Curricula der germanistischen Abteilungen sind an allen Universitäten ähnlich, unterscheiden sich jedoch oft sehr stark im Gewicht einzelner Sachgebiete sowie in der Verteilung der fachspezifischen Kurse auf die Studienjahre.

As examples of this he cites SNU and HUFS, which have the longest tradition of Germanistik in Korea. SNU is regarded as the top university in Korea, known in particular for its teacher training, and HUFS is a fully equipped foreign languages university. Both German departments have circa 20 staff each (which is large in Korean terms), good libraries, diverse

⁴⁷¹ Cf. Kim 1993/94: 34; Seybel 1995: 12; Yang 1997b: 74.

⁴⁷² Cf. Kim 1992: 134.

course offerings and renowned graduate schools. Both have *DAAD* foreign language assistants and both work closely with German universities. The SNU with the *Institut für Deutsch als Fremdsprachen Philologie* and the HUFS with the University of Würzburg. The HUFS is regarded as having the best language studies and linguistic courses in Korea with practical application of language abilities the main emphasis of all programmes. The university has many native speakers from German-speaking Europe and has modern language learning equipment (Hann 1984: 317-318).

The degree structure, number of students and length of the degree are similar at both universities, but the orientation of the two departments is markedly different (Hann 1984: 318; Yim 1986: 114): SNU places emphasis on literary studies and linguistics while HUFS places emphasis on the practical application of language skills and the use of the media and technology.

Yim's comparison of the programmes offered at these two universities highlights several differences. For instance, specialisation in the major subject at SNU begins only in the second year of study. Introductory courses, such as an Introduction to the German language and to German literature, are required for beginners in the first two semesters, while over 80 percent of the first year of study comprises general education. At HUFS, on the other hand, specialisation in the major subject begins in the first semester with courses such as German Language Studies I and II, German Conversation Practice and Reading German Texts. Language courses at SNU form 20 percent of the programme, linguistics courses 15 percent and literary courses 65 percent, while language courses form 32 percent of the programme at HUFS, area studies five percent, linguistics 15 percent and literary courses 45 percent of the overall teaching programme. It is clear from this comparison that the German programme at HUFS places greater emphasis on the intensive teaching of the language and the application of those language skills, while the emphasis at SNU is on the study of German literature.

Most programmes offered at other universities fall between these two extremes (Yim 1986: 114). Given that nearly one quarter of students beginning a degree in Germanistik have little or no prior knowledge and only a very small number of graduates want to continue their studies at the graduate level, the HUFS model would appear to be the most appropriate, in Yim's opinion, for the Korean situation. SNU has a long tradition in Korea of being able to accept the very best high school graduates because it is ranked as the top university, so when planning the German programme the competencies of the students (including the higher level of prior language skills) clearly play a role.

After graduating with a B.A., students wishing to continue onto graduate studies must sit an entrance examination before undertaking a two-year Master's degree at a Graduate School or College of Education. A written examination and a thesis are required for the successful

completion of a M.A. or M.E. Before continuing onto the three year PhD course, students are often required to sit a further examination including an English examination and another in German. Written and oral examinations are part of the PhD process and candidates are allowed a maximum of ten years to complete their research thesis. Masters and doctoral students specialise primarily in literary and linguistic topics. At least one year of study in a German-speaking country is obligatory for PhD candidates at most universities as they are expected to expand their basic degree knowledge as well undertake specialist research in a German-speaking country before presenting a PhD thesis in Korea (Yim 1986: 117; Lie 1987: 87). While undertaking their doctoral studies, PhD candidates are often employed to teach general language courses at the first year level (Kim 1993/94: 34-35).

Koch (1996: 115) found that in 1992 there were only 385 students enrolled in Master's courses and 160 in PhDs. These comprise less than four percent of the 14 941 German students at that time.⁴⁷³ Given that actual academic discussion and analysis only begins at the graduate and postgraduate level while undergraduates learn primarily the basic language skills, circa 96 percent of all Germanistik students are excluded from comprehensive study of the subject (Kim 1993/94: 35).⁴⁷⁴

Yim (1986: 117) describes the curriculum of the Graduate schools as being similar to that of the undergraduate programmes (except at Translators/Interpreters' schools), although the graduate programmes tend to be the subject specific part of the 'traditional' Germanistik degree (that is, literary and linguistics studies), so do not include *LK* courses, for instance. A limited number of courses in Middle High German literature are offered at this level.⁴⁷⁵

Although the compulsory number of teaching hours is reduced to nine teaching hours per week to allow students more time for independent research, Yim contends that (from the perspective of the German-speaking teaching staff at least) the weakest point in the study of Germanistik in Korea is that little independent study is expected of students.⁴⁷⁶ For instance, students often do not learn to quote, give bibliographical details correctly or to compose an academic essay. This criticism is partially justified and, according to Yim (1986: 116), Korean teaching staff are aware of the problem. But the root of the problem lies in the fact that courses in skills such as *Bücherkunde* are not offered in Korean universities. In some courses for advanced students written references are explained but mainly in Korean! In addition, the language skills of most students are not sufficient for them to be able to independently analyse German secondary literature. The libraries of most universities are only poorly stocked, especially with regards to German literature.⁴⁷⁷ While almost every university has language laboratories, video players, OHP, cassette decks and computers,

⁴⁷³ Son (1999: 586) found that of the almost 14 000 students studying German as a major nationwide in 1999, only circa 250 were undertaking a Master's degree and 120 a PhD.

⁴⁷⁴ Cf. Yim 1986: 113; Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 42.

⁴⁷⁵ Cf. Hann 1984: 316; Rhie 1987: 43.

⁴⁷⁶ Cf. Kammler 1984: 181; Nellen 1989: 14.

⁴⁷⁷ Cf. Lie 1987: 88; Koch 1996: 100-101.

these media are not utilised to their full advantage according to Wollert (1997a: 39). One reason for this is that learner-oriented teaching methods are not used because of the large class sizes.

There are currently circa 60 German *freie* and five *DAAD LektorInnen* working at universities throughout Korea as language assistants. They teach language, contemporary German literature and *LK*, attempt to present a heterogeneous and authentic picture of the social, political and cultural developments in modern Germany and act essentially as cultural ambassadors of their countries (Menke 1998: 8). These lecturers are also active in extramural activities, including theatre groups and conversation groups, and teach further education evening classes for teachers at the *Goethe-Institut*.⁴⁷⁸ While Yim (1986: 115) describes the language assistants as being mainly occupied with conversation and essay exercises, he believes that they can also help with the improvement of the teaching methodology overall as they are in a position to critically analyse the practice in Korea from an objective distance. However, *LektorInnen* are not required to have studied *DaF* as part of their degree(s) in Germany (although many have), so do not always have experience in that field.

Adelhoefer (1993/94c: 37-38, 49) describes the position of the foreign language assistants as being an opportunity to include interesting and innovative topics in classes but warns of the pitfalls.⁴⁷⁹ He contends that the most important thing is to increase and expand the students' knowledge of the language and of German culture and everyday life. Decisions about classes must not be taken on an ad hoc basis but rather with an awareness of the parameters of the discipline in Korea and of the fundamentals of teaching. In his experience the students are interested in the area studies courses and topics and this is an opportunity to utilise many different kinds of media (videos, slides, magazines, advertising brochures, etc.) in the classroom. The use of such media in language teaching also provides opportunities to break down the barriers between student and teacher in Korea and to encourage active participation in the classroom discussion (Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 49-54). Many of the difficulties foreign language assistants face when teaching German in Korea are caused by the vast differences between the Korean and German cultures, education systems and languages. For that reason Adelhoefer and others compiled a handbook of information to assist new and potential foreign language assistants in preparing for life and teaching in Korea: M. Adelhoefer (ed.), *Informationen für deutschsprachige Lektoren und Lektorinnen in Korea. 1993/94*, (Goethe-Institut Seoul, Korea).

In addition to learning German in high school and at university, there are a variety of other educational institutions at which Koreans can learn German, including distance education institutions, the *Goethe-Institut* in Seoul, language schools (e.g. *Inlingua* and the Homann

⁴⁷⁸ Cf. Krusche 1971: 246; Oh 1993/94: 3; Adelhoefer 1993/94b: 4; Siemes 1993/94: 1; Wollert 1998: 10-11.

⁴⁷⁹ Cf. Menke 1999: 44-48; *DaF-Szene Korea* 1996: 88-127.

School) and the German Cultural Centre (Lie 1984: 36; 1987: 84). The state financed distance high school and university are essentially for those who are employed. German is taught as a second foreign language in the optional courses section. The curriculum is the same as that for the normal high schools and universities. In addition, the Korean Broadcasting Service (KBS) offers German courses to the general public and interested parties on the radio and television. The Military Academy has recently reopened its German department (after it was closed in the early to mid 1980s) (Lie 1984: 35-36; Yim 1986: 118).

The scale and diversity of German in Korea is reflected in the range of relevant academic and cultural associations and organisations. Founded in 1968 the main branch of the *Goethe-Institut* is in Seoul with another in Taejon and a *Goethe-Zentrum* in Pusan (which opened in 1988). As with all *Goethe-Institute* worldwide, the main tasks of the institute are to maintain and promote the German language and culture abroad and to promote international cooperation.⁴⁸⁰ The demand for courses offered by the *Goethe-Institut* is high, has increased constantly during the past two decades and often outnumbers availability.⁴⁸¹ In 1981, 1873 people applied for language courses in German and 1700 completed successfully. By 1993 about 5000 Korean pupils and students were learning German at the institute per annum (Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 41). According to Hann (1984: 315), there is a significant group of business people and politicians (in addition to the Germanistik students or graduates) who want to learn German to be able to study further in Germany or to maintain their language skills.

The *Referat Pädagogische Verbindungsarbeit* at the institute is the first point of contact for the over 1000 Korean German teachers and organises further education courses for these teachers. Through these intensive training courses and the multiplication effect of such training, the institute hopes to reach a wider audience outside of Seoul, Taejon and Pusan.⁴⁸² In addition, the *Goethe-Institut* provides assistance to German teachers wishing to further their education in Germany, an information and library service, organises cultural events and supports the German foreign language assistants by organising regular seminars and meetings and by providing support to them regarding legal matters and working conditions in Korea (Yim 1986: 118; Oh 1993/94: 3; Kohz 1996: 5-6). There are also three German language advisors in Seoul, Pusan and Kwangju who are funded by the *Bundesverwaltungsamt* (Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 42).

Germanisten and their academic associations and organisations work closely with the Toyko DAAD branch, which is also responsible for Korea. The need for qualified teaching staff (required because of the dramatic increase in the number of students in the 1980s) was hard to cover for the newly founded universities, and numerous graduates, German teachers and

⁴⁸⁰ Cf. Breuer 1975: 7-11; *Goethe-Institut* 1998.

⁴⁸¹ Cf. Lie 1984: 35-36; Yim 1986: 118.

⁴⁸² Cf. Yim 1986: 119; Timmermann 1999: 58.

lecturers furthered their education with the assistance of scholarships from various different German institutions. The *DAAD* began work in 1952 in Korea and by 1983 had awarded 265 year long scholarships, 53 of which were given to Germanisten who are now professors of German at Korean universities (Yim 1986: 117-118). Due to the similarities between the German and Korean constitutions, the *DAAD* has also financially assisted lawyers and students of Law. In addition, a number of foreign language assistants and German-speaking *Praktikanten* have been sent to Korea (Hann 1984: 311).

Other organisations, which have provided scholarships and other assistance to Korean Germanisten, include the *Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung*, the *Alexander von Humboldt-Stiftung*, and the *Konrad-Adenauer-Stiftung*. The German, Swiss and Austrian Embassies in Seoul are further points of contact with the German-speaking countries and cultures. Nellen (1989: 1-2) deplores the fact that the German government and other organisations invests a large amount of financial resources into the facilitation of these exchanges, but little support or encouragement for these is given by the Korean government, universities or other organisations.⁴⁸³

A wide variety of academic associations exist in Korea, including the *KGG*, *Koreanische Büchner-Gesellschaft*, *Koreanische Goethe-Gesellschaft*, *Koreanische Kafka-Gesellschaft*, *Koreanische Brecht-Gesellschaft*, *Koreanische Gesellschaft für Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (KGDaF), *Lektoren-Vereinigung-Korea* (LVK), *Koreanische Gesellschaft für Deutsche Sprache und Literatur* (KGDSL), *Koreanischer Deutschlehrer Verband* (KDV), *Koreanische Germanisten- und Lehrerverband* and the *Koreanische Gesellschaft für Germanistik und Didaktik*.⁴⁸⁴

The *KGG* was established in 1958/1959 and published its first journal in the same year. This journal tends to include mainly articles concerned with literary studies issues and topics, although some articles on topics in contrastive grammar and linguistics have been published in recent years (Hann 1984: 308-309). The initiators and members were Germanisten and young graduates of the German department at SNU. At that time it was predominantly a friendly society and of the 81 registered members, few actually concerned themselves with Germanistik research (Rhie 1987: 38). Today the *KGG* lobbies the Korean government and German organisations intensively for the promotion of the discipline. The main task of the *KGG* is to support the academic activities of its members by publishing their research, organising seminars and conferences and promoting international cooperation (Yang 1997a: 57).

⁴⁸³ Cf. Yim 1986: 118.

⁴⁸⁴ Cf. Lie 1984: 35-36; Rhie 1997b: 16; Yang 1998b: 15; Son 1999: 568.

In 1970 the *Koreanische Germanisten- und Lehrerverband* was founded and began publishing the *Zeitschrift für Deutsche Sprache und Literatur* (Hann 1984: 309). Since the late 1980s the *KDV* has also provided a forum for the exchange of ideas amongst high school teachers.

In 1995 the *LVK* was founded. This is an association of the native German-speaking *LektorInnen* which was established in Seoul in 1995 to improve the professional standing of the work of the 'freelance' foreign language assistants in Korea and to assist new colleagues to prepare more adequately for work in Korea (Yang 1998b: 14). It is not simply a representative body of the interests of foreign language assistants but also organises academic and further education seminars and conferences, and together with the *DAAD* and *Goethe-Institut*, as well as the Korean Germanistik and *DaF* organisations and associations, attempts to give new impulse to the discipline in Korea.⁴⁸⁵ The *LVK* publishes the journal *DaF-Szene Korea* twice yearly and other newsletters on current issues and topics on an irregular basis.

Adelhoefer (1995: 16-17) says the *LVK* was founded partially because of the growing dissatisfaction with the lack of transparency in Korean bureaucracy and the poor working conditions these lecturers are faced with. He continues that little support is received by these lecturers from the German embassy, although the *Goethe-Institut* and the *DAAD* have given and continue to give assistance in many forms. The *LVK* is the first group of foreign language assistants abroad to systematically and continually push for improvements in the teaching and working conditions. Its example is now being followed in part by the foreign language assistants in Japan with their *Lektoren-Rundbrief Japan*.⁴⁸⁶ Since the funding of the *LVK* and the publishing of *DaF-Szene Korea*, the number of inquiries for information about German in Korea has increased dramatically (Adelhoefer 1996a: 6-7). During the mid 1990s the number of 'freelance' foreign language assistants working in Korean universities increased from 35 in 1992 to 65 in 1996, while in the same period the number of *DAAD* language assistants decreased from 8 to 5. However, Adelhoefer says wide discrepancies between the working conditions of the *DAAD* and the 'freelance' language assistants remain.⁴⁸⁷ For example, the so-called *freie LektorInnen* receive only the Korean university wage and have none of the privileges of those supported by the *DAAD*. Year long contracts are the norm (Adelhoefer 1993/94c: 39).

Shortly after the founding of the *LVK*, the *KGDaF* was founded (Menke 1998: 8). The main task of the *KGDaF* (which at present has approximately 120 members) is to bring about re-orientation within the traditional Germanistik degree in Korea (Timmermann 1999: 58). Many

⁴⁸⁵ Cf. <http://maincc.hufs.ac.kr/~kneider/lvk.htm> (6 February 1999).

⁴⁸⁶ Cf. <http://www.gakushuin.ac.jp/~19960705/index.htm> (6 February 1999).

⁴⁸⁷ Cf. In-Suk 1997: 7-9; *LVK* 1997: 10-14.

(including Han 1996: 11) regard the founding of these two *DaF* oriented associations as a sign that *DaF* as a subject is establishing itself in Korea. Timmermann (1999: 58) continues that until now the associations have had little influence on the educational and language policies of successive Korean governments because most of the foreign language teachers and professors (of languages other than German) were not particularly concerned about the political changes and measures. However, because of the expected effects of the most recent changes, it is imperative that the Germanistik and *DaF* associations cooperate to address the reality and problems and to discuss the government's language policies, in order to have any influence on future changes and the future direction of the discipline.

II.3.4.3 Innovation and Reorientation in the Field of German During the Past Two Decades.

It is evident that the Germanistik discipline in Korea (as in China and Japan) is currently in a fundamental process of change, given the reorientation of political and economic relations, the diversification of second foreign languages, the increasing numbers of students choosing to learn Chinese or Japanese and the recent education reforms that have essentially abolished the institutionalised place of German in Korea.⁴⁸⁸ Demand for Germanistik has declined (and will continue to) due to the market principles of supply and demand, particularly at those universities, where the latest reforms have already been introduced (Yang 1997a: 57; Giersberg 1998: 468-469). This can be attributed at least in part to the fact many students are now able to choose their own subjects.

However, while there has been much discussion of the changing parameters and possible solutions to the challenges these present the discipline, few concrete solutions have been implemented in Korea, in stark contrast to in China. At the 1985 *Germanistentagung* in Changju some Germanisten asked what Korean Germanistik can and should achieve. Jaemin (1985), for example, questioned the suitability of the discipline's objectives to date and suggested improvements in the teaching methodology and a new orientation of the curriculum towards a degree that prepared students for employment. Others, including Cho (1987), Ahn (1988) and Hur (1992), called for changes in the actual teaching methodology in literary courses, including increased emphasis on literary theories and criticism as opposed to translation.

Discussion about the objectives and function of German as a foreign language (a hot topic in Korea for the past two decades) is hampered not only by different points of view and the stratification of different objectives, but also by intercultural misunderstandings about the value and place of career or employment-oriented degrees as opposed to general degrees (Hann 1984: 311-312). A general increase in the value of the second foreign languages within the education system and the employment market is required. Adelhoefer (1993/94c:

⁴⁸⁸ Cf. Rhie 1987: 45-47, 1997a: 13; Yang 1998b: 1; Paek 1999: 21; Rohs 2001: 4.

55-56) believes there is a contradiction between the realities of teaching and learning in Korea and the government's desire to become internationally competitive. The government's policies of internationalisation and globalisation should not lose sight of the importance of cultural exchange, particularly with regard to the European Union and the European markets. Giersberg (1998: 469) believes German Studies as a discipline could play a significant role in this regard. For instance, the discipline has the opportunity to diversify into providing high quality language courses for the increasing number of students of other disciplines wanting to study in German-speaking Europe.

Schmidt (1996: 36) calls for fundamental changes in the programmes offered in order to diversify the discipline and make it more appealing and market-oriented:⁴⁸⁹

Wir müssen uns anpassen, an den Stil, an den Markt und dann andere Lehrveranstaltungen und aktualisierte, attraktivere Vorlesungen und Sprachkurse anbieten. Die Unterrichtsmethoden sind veraltet und müssen dringend verbessert werden.

Schmidt (1996: 37) believes in future the traditional Germanistik degree will be offered only to the few Masters and PhD students. She continues that Korean Germanistik is searching for its own way amongst the educational policies and constant reforms and suggests that the discipline must teach modern language courses and improve the quality of research and translation work and include intercultural perspectives in cultural studies courses.

Manke (1997: 29) believes that prerequisites for reforms within the discipline are appropriate curriculum parameters, a suitable number of teaching hours, a sensible differentiation of students according to their skills and achievements, flexible examination requirements (or the integration of German and other second foreign languages into the examination system), upgraded facilities, a programme that can be adapted to the needs of, for example, students majoring in literature, Law, Management, Music, and intensive language learning as the main focus. He (1997: 27) further suggests that the (expected) effects of *Hakbuchae*, i.e. the drastic decline in the number of students choosing to study German, could be used as an opportunity to increase the quality of teacher training, to introduce smaller class sizes and to increase the motivation of students.⁴⁹⁰

As in China and Japan, a number of possibilities for adapting Germanistik in Korea to the changing environment have been suggested. These include projects encouraging teamwork between all levels of students learning German, such as weekend seminars; offering a choice between the traditional Germanistik degree programme and a career oriented degree programme; introducing interfaculty and interdisciplinary programmes on a national, regional and international level; making a study abroad component compulsory; utilising modern

⁴⁸⁹ Cf. Yim 1986; Rhie 1987: 45-47; Kim 1992: 133; Wollert 1997a: 40; Giersberg 1998: 468-469; Timmermann 1999: 481.

⁴⁹⁰ Cf. Lie 1987: 87-89; Ahn 1989: 347, 354; Wollert 1996: 44-45.

technologies to cooperate with other universities and institutions; increased cooperation between Korean and German universities, organisations and institutions through short term exchanges for lecturers, partnerships with universities and higher numbers of scholarships.⁴⁹¹

Rhie (1997a, 1997b: 15) criticises the discipline for historically following the Japanese model too closely and now for attempting to model itself on the *Binnengermanistik*. He calls for changes in the Korean discipline to allow for the unique characteristics of the Korean context. In answer to the current crisis in the discipline, he (1987: 45-47, 1999: 74-75) suggests that the degree programmes need to be better coordinated and integrated; that the teaching methodology must change to become addressee-oriented and learner focused instead of simply an invariable copy of *Binnengermanistik*;⁴⁹² Germanistik must utilise the teachings and topics of *DaF*, increase the number of subject combinations and possible career paths; and literary studies should not be taught simply for their own sake, but be integrated into the overall programme and focus primarily on texts of the 20th century.

Rhie (1997a: 21-22) outlines ten principals for achieving change in the Korean discipline:

- The development of a new modal curriculum (with a strengthening of language courses and LK);
- The development of textbooks according to the new curriculum (for German as a major, German as general education, *Fachsprachen*, LK, etc.);
- Improvements in the language courses offered to Germanistik students (e.g. the attainment of the *ZDaF* during the first two years of study, integrated lessons);
- An improvement in the training of German teachers (e.g. language competency, training in didactics, modern methodologies and LK);
- The prescription of the language requirements for Master's students (e.g. *KDS* or similar certification);
- Improvements in the German courses offered to students of other disciplines and faculties;
- The inclusion of cultural and area studies as an integrated part of the German programme or as an independent subject;
- The development of opportunities for students to study abroad (including for students of Law, Management and the Sciences);
- A willingness of Korean Germanisten to change in a changing world (through further education and individual study from literary studies specialists to LK or interdisciplinary studies specialists); and
- A campaign aimed at improving the image of Germanistik in Korea and its profile in society (through publicity and lobbying activities by the Germanistik associations).

⁴⁹¹ Cf. Hann 1984: 312; Lie 1984: 37-38, 1987: 87-89; Nellen 1989: 15; Wollert 1996: 44-45; Nord 1996: 54-60; Paek 1999: 24-26.

⁴⁹² Cf. Wierlacher 1980c: 11; Cha 1999: 538.

Kohz (1997: 30) maintains that because of the impact of technology and the internet in particular, universities must offer something the internet and other institutions cannot or do not. While he believes improvements in the teaching of German in Korea are required, he stresses that the discipline needs to adapt to changing social and political factors and lists the following factors as being necessary for fundamental reforms of Germanistik in Korea:

- The reforms should be planned and implemented in close cooperation with other foreign language disciplines;
- The specific Korean situational factors must be analysed and taken into account. Models from other countries cannot simply be copied but rather should be used as a guide;
- The discipline must diversify and restructure through the founding of new institutes and the offering of new interdisciplinary study programmes;
- The content of degrees must be designed to take the changing market parameters into account and become career-oriented; and
- The relations between German and Korea and the increasing importance of German as a trade, diplomatic and economic language in Europe should be emphasised more strongly.

Against the backdrop of these discussions, a limited number of innovations within the discipline have occurred during the past two decades. One such innovation has been ***the structural reorganisation and redefinition of departments and the subject***. Wollert (1999: 10) questioned a number of LVK members to ascertain what the effects of the first few years of *Hakbuchae* had been on Germanistik in Korea and found that the restructuring of faculties has led in most cases to the amalgamation of departments. In some instances the languages were amalgamated according to geographical areas, such as European Studies departments (French and German) and Pacific Studies (English and Japanese). In other cases foreign language faculties were established with English being the clear favourite as a major subject and the less popular languages (French, German and Chinese) becoming essentially supporting subjects. Some universities allow students to choose between the languages. At others students are required to study both French and German. At Keimyung University in Taegu, the department is no longer oriented merely towards language and literary studies, but also offers a programme in German Studies. However, whether or not this model would succeed or be accepted on a widespread basis is questionable.⁴⁹³

It has been suggested that perhaps ***the development of intercultural courses and programmes*** and of an Intercultural Regional Germanistik would give the discipline new impetus. Choe (1991: 102-103) calls for Intercultural German Studies to become part of the

⁴⁹³ Cf. Yim 1986: 115; Yang 1998b: 19.

Korean discipline so as to bring all the situational factors impacting on the discipline together and to assist in the development of the overall re-orientation of Germanistik in Korea. The changes in political structures and powers have led to an increasing need for such area studies competencies. Such studies, however, must be anchored in the situational parameters of the country they are being taught in (Bräsel 1997: 101-102, 104).

Bräsel (1997: 99) contends the importance of and need for intercultural studies as part of German programmes in all South East Asian countries is increasing parallel to the status and values of these cultures increasing in relation to the traditionally dominant European cultures. For instance, the international reputation of Korean art is increasing in Europe and America. She points to Hann's indication of the necessity to study intercultural issues over ten years ago. One task Hann (1984: 318, 1985: 107) considered vital for the future of Germanistik in Korea was research into the problems of intercultural communication in Korea as no comparative studies had been carried out in this field.

Bräsel (1997: 100) continues that it is important to include expertise and topics from other disciplines and to take the characteristics of the learning environment and social setting into account. The aim is to understand another culture not to take it on or over. In response to the commonly heard criticism of the danger of the other culture prevailing over one's own, Bräsel says it is important to remember that Asia and Europe have been communicating for hundreds of years and have retained their own cultures and identities.⁴⁹⁴ However, despite the discussion about Intercultural German Studies in Korea, very few programmes or courses have been developed during the past two decades.

The development of interdisciplinary courses and programmes is another innovation that has been discussed during the past two decades. Peck (1999) and Adelhoefer (1993/94c: 55-56) believe it could be the opportune time for the discipline to develop programmes in interdisciplinary German or European cultural studies as the changing environment and globalisation demand area skills and flexibility of graduates.⁴⁹⁵ Kim (1992: 138-139) says the younger generation of students are less and less interested in literary studies and increasingly critical of the way the degrees are structured. Interdisciplinary programmes, such as German cultural studies, could, therefore, be one option for a redefinition of German in Korea and perhaps a solution to the perceived unproductiveness of the Humanities subjects. Although Timmermann (1999: 485) admits the problem with such a development is defining what should be included in such a programme, he believes it is vital for the discipline to answer the question 'Why would a Korean student want to learn German at all?' in order to give German programmes a clear and concise objective. This will in turn ensure the content of the teaching programme is correctly designed and determine the methodology used.

⁴⁹⁴ Cf. Hofmann and Kim 1993/94: 61-62.

⁴⁹⁵ Cf. Rhie 1997a; Yang 1998b: 20; Paek 1999: 25-26; Son 1999: 570-571; Timmermann: 1999: 485.

Wollert (1997a: 41-42) and Kim (1992: 138-140) believe the opportunities for Germanistik lie in students being convinced to select a combination of subjects that gives them the edge in the employment market.⁴⁹⁶ Good German language skills, whether studied as a major or a minor subject, in combination with other subjects will certainly not reduce a student's chances of gaining employment. Germany is a favoured destination of students wishing to study abroad and the *DAAD* and other organisations actively promote exchange programmes (Wollert 1999: 13). Wollert contends, however, that the link between the international market for education, the export dependent economy and the global economy could be used more intensively to discipline's advantage. For example, with scholarships and work placements for students in appropriate firms. Menke and Arnoldi (1999: 29-31) believe there could be a niche market for German departments to diversify into teaching German language and culture within Korean firms, such as Samsung.⁴⁹⁷

Wollert (1997a: 41) warns against career-oriented programmes being the sole saviour of Korean Germanistik as firms in Korea want graduates with English skills as opposed to German. However, he believes a combination of German cultural studies, language competency, employment skills and a study abroad component should be included in programmes offered.⁴⁹⁸ He describes a project where students investigated the employment market for graduates of the German department at Sungshin Women's University. Students gained contacts with potential employers at the same time as undertaking this research.

There is a growing trend towards discussing the value and function of *LK*⁴⁹⁹ and of the inclusion of elements of this in the teaching programmes.⁵⁰⁰ In May 2000 the *KGDaF* in conjunction with the *Goethe-Institut* in Seoul hosted the fourth international symposium, *Landeskunde im Deutschunterricht*.⁵⁰¹ At present if *LK* is offered at all as a subject area within the teaching programme, the courses are given titles, such as '*Die Verhältnisse in Deutschland*', '*German Culture*', '*Deutsche Volkskunde*' and '*Germany in the 20th Century*' (Yim 1986: 115).

Hong (1992: 81-83) agrees that *LK* should be given more attention in Korea given the current situation of Germanistik.⁵⁰² Hong maintains that through such studies students learn more about the destination country and the life of its citizens: the history, geology, sociology, politics, economy, literature, arts, music, sport, media and traditions. Students have more possibilities for communication and the subject contributes to cultural understanding and increases the interest of students in the country and language. It is, therefore, a means of

⁴⁹⁶ Cf. Rhie 1997b: 13.

⁴⁹⁷ Cf. *Bericht* 1997: 4-5.

⁴⁹⁸ Cf. Zimmer 1996: 92; Timmermann 1999: 482.

⁴⁹⁹ Cf. Picht 1991: 54; Bräsel 1997: 99-113.

⁵⁰⁰ For details of a number of individual projects, modules or courses introduced by some foreign language assistants and others, see Menke 1999: 44-48 and *DaF in Korea* 1996: 88-127.

⁵⁰¹ Cf. <http://maincc.hufs.ac.kr/~kneider/lvk-kalend.htm> (14 March 2000).

⁵⁰² Cf. Yang 1998b: 16-17; Kim 1999.

motivating students to learn German and at the same time of making the lessons more interesting and appealing by utilising authentic texts and audio visual media. A study of one hundred graduates of the Korea Institute of Technology found 37 were very interested in *LK* (Hong 1992: 80-81). It is also important to teach Koreans about other cultures as the German forms of addressing people, for example, are foreign to them.

For *LK* to be taught in Korea, trainee teachers would need to be taught about the subject. At present literature is the central focus of the Germanistik and teacher training degrees, with linguistics and language skills also being important components. Teachers receive some informal training in such subjects during the two-month courses in Germany organised by the *Goethe-Institut*, but only a small number of teachers undertake these courses each year. *LK*, however, needs to be included in the curriculum as a separate subject. One method of achieving this would be to cover such topics in the intensive further education courses provided by the *Goethe-Institut*. Teachers need to be trained in German contemporary issues, such as the reunification of Germany, as until recently topics such as communism were tabu subjects given Korea's political climate. In addition to (further) training in *LK*, teachers need to have access to more authentic and varied materials and to revised textbooks or textbooks specifically designed for teaching *LK* (Hong 1992: 84).

Examples of German programmes in other countries which Rhie (1997a: 17-21) believes could act as a guide for the re-orientation of programmes in Korea include the *Diplomkulturwirtschaft* programme at Passau University, where students study at least two applied foreign languages and the basics of economics, law and management and cultural studies pertaining to a specific region (Rhie 1997a: 18). Another example is from China where students study the language alongside general education subjects and area studies, cultural studies and literature courses (all taught in Chinese) (Rhie 1997a: 12-24). In the first two years the emphasis is on language competencies and in the final two years the emphasis is on training as an interpreter, translator or German teacher, during which (Rhie 1997a: 18-19):

das leitende Prinzip der chinesischen Curricula ist die Kommunikationsfähigkeit im weitesten Sinne des Wortes.

Rhie (1997a: 20-21) believes that in the future traditional Germanistik will not be taught in Korea, but that German Studies with an emphasis on *LK* or *Fachsprachen* should be taught.⁵⁰³

Yang (1998b: 20) raises the question as to whether Germanistik and German language courses should not become separate entities. He suggests three possible models for the future of German in Korea:

⁵⁰³ Cf. Manke 1997: 29.

- (a) A continuation of the current curriculum whereby literary studies remain the focus of the degree programme. The justification of this would be that the degree contributes to the general abilities of a graduate and their wide knowledge and skills are transferable to a wide variety of possible employment situations;⁵⁰⁴
- (b) An adaptation of the Chinese model; or
- (c) An interdisciplinary orientation, such as German or European Studies, whereby all the components (language, literature, history and culture) form part of the programme.

Kohz (1997: 32-33) suggests an 'Institute of International Relations' be established at Korean universities, comprising a department of foreign languages, a department of Asian Studies and a department of European Studies and offering a variety of degree programmes. The languages department would be responsible for the teaching of foreign languages to ensure that students start their further studies with the required level of language competency. For German, the programmes could include Germanistik (B.A. and M.A.), German Cultural Studies and German teacher training. The common goal of all three degree programmes offered would be to train students as 'Germany specialists'. Kohz believes this could have a positive effect on Korean Germanistik in a variety of ways, including:

- The option of three different degree programmes would result in smaller classes, which would make for more satisfactory and effective teaching;
- Korean Germanistik would experience a 'healthy' decline and less competition between students would increase their chances of obtaining employment;
- Students graduating as cultural studies specialists would be interesting for many branches of the economy. This would increase the chances of employment and increase students' individual talents and skills (including flexibility, foreign language competency, foreign cultural competency and practical employment experience);
- The attractiveness of such degree programmes would attract good students;
- There would be fewer cuts in positions and perhaps even an increase the number of lecturers required; and
- Informed high school pupils would understand that it makes sense to learn German and to study German and would, therefore, be more motivated to participate in classes.

Such changes within the discipline would be in line with demands by many Koreans for better foreign language and culture competencies and the globalisation policies of the Korean government and reflect the trends internationally (Kohz 1997: 33-34).

⁵⁰⁴ Cf. Wollert 1997a: 37.

The modernisation of language courses is another method with which those teaching German in Korea have attempted to counter the difficulties facing the discipline. Nord (1997: 47-48) argues that the apparently strong position of German as a foreign language in Korea, as reflected in the statistics, is confusing and often misrepresented. The high numbers learning German at high school do not necessarily equal the true demand for German because German is offered at more high schools than other foreign languages. Adelhoefer (1993/94c: 55-56) too believes that an emphasis on quantity still dominates foreign language studies. And he questions the wisdom of teaching the German language in Korean!

Although it is generally expected graduates of Germanistik can speak German, Korean students usually learn only the basics of German in the first year of study and then read (often quite advanced) literary texts and translate these into Korean.⁵⁰⁵ But if they have not intensively learnt German at the *Goethe-Institut*, they are often not able to communicate with native speakers of German.⁵⁰⁶ Another group wanting to learn German for practical reasons, such as continuing their studies in Germany, tends to enrol in the courses offered by the *Goethe-Institut*. In the early years most of the participants of these courses were students of other disciplines, but increasingly students of Germanistik are enrolling in the institute's language courses! Some, including Lie (1987: 89-90), call for the work of the *Goethe-Institut* to be expanded.

Social changes are making it increasingly necessary to adapt foreign language teaching to the actual demands of Korean society (Yang 1998a: 466). For instance, there is increasing cooperation with foreign firms; Korea is an export dependent nation; there are increasing numbers of foreign workers coming to Korea and many students going abroad to study. Reforms in education have impacted drastically (and continue to impact) on Germanistik. For instance, second foreign languages are no longer obligatory. Students can choose (at least in theory) whether to study a second foreign language and which one. This situation means that the discipline must adapt to the demands and needs of the students (or clients).

One of the most important and urgent aspects of this must be an improvement in the standard of language competencies so graduates can use their German language skills in situations in later life and in their career.⁵⁰⁷ At universities, where reforms were introduced in 1996, the number of first year students enrolling in German has declined between 30 and 90 percent (Wollert 1999: 10-11). At those universities where the reforms were introduced only at the beginning of 1999 there have already been changes in first year enrolment patterns, including low enrolments in literature and linguistics courses and subsequent cancellations. Language and area studies courses have been better attended than in recent years. Wollert (1996: 45), however, believes the language courses within German programmes need to be

⁵⁰⁵ Cf. Song 1988: 6; Yang 1998a: 465-466.

⁵⁰⁶ According to Yang (1998a), this phenomenon is widespread in the foreign language disciplines in Korea.

⁵⁰⁷ Cf. Lie 1987: 87; Nellen 1989: 15.

improved so students are not forced to pay extra fees to an outside agency as well as for their degree.

One measure the *LVK* suggests is the introduction of a language examination (including an oral component) at all universities, which is recognised (inter)nationally so as to give students more motivation to learn German (Bericht 1997: 4-5). Deutsch (1997: 61-65) contends the standard of students' language competencies needs to be increased as it impacts on all other facets of their learning. However, professors often do not expect German language competency from students as they themselves are not fluent in the language. Deutsch also calls for the nationwide introduction of some form of examination or certification, such as the *ZDaF*, as places such as the Island of Cheju have no other possibilities to learn German except at university.

Wollert (1999: 12) found that the changes (which have occurred as part of the reform process) have inevitably had consequences for the foreign language assistants. Some now have a reduced number of teaching hours as at some universities the number of teaching hours for all staff has been reduced. This would, however, appear not to be prudent, as high quality language courses are regarded as one of the easiest ways to attract students. Wollert believes that unless staff can convince the faculties that high quality language lessons are vital, a situation similar to that in Japan may occur, whereby relatively large numbers of students study German language for two semesters at a very low niveau. He believes Korean universities need to ensure that students attain at least the level required for the *ZDaF*. Chi (1975: 153-155) maintains that languages should not simply be part of general education, but should also be included at the advanced levels.

Some believe that the teaching of *Fachsprachen* for students of other disciplines, who want to study in Germany, needs to be improved and expanded as a means of improving the image and depth of German Studies in Korea.⁵⁰⁸ Kim (1992: 137-138) and Wollert (1997a: 41) believe computers should be utilised in all aspects of the subject. They suggest that the *Goethe-Institut* or other German institutions should develop computer software for the effective teaching of language. This would make the subject more appealing to students, would save time and could eventually mean universities or individuals could obtain courses direct from German-speaking countries.⁵⁰⁹

There have been a number of small changes at individual universities (Deutsch 1997: 63-64). For instance, at Cheju University a modern textbook for *DaF* has been introduced and German foreign language assistants have cooperated (and continue to do so) to adapt this and to coordinate courses to systematise the teaching of this. In addition, Cheju has established a partnership with Bonn University whereby students at Cheju can attend an

⁵⁰⁸ Cf. Nellen 1989: 15; Rhie 1997a: 15; Son 1999: 570-571.

⁵⁰⁹ Cf. Bericht 1997: 4-5.

intensive summer school where *DaF* students from Germany assist with the teaching. Students and academics at Cheju are also encouraged to spend some time researching at Bonn University. Since 1997 a four-week language course has been offered in Bonn for students at Cheju. Deutsch (1997: 65) insists such initiatives must be part of the curriculum and students must be able to obtain credits for these.

Stahl (1996: 14-15) describes an initiative organised by the foreign language assistants in the French and German departments at her university. As university reform is a hot topic in Korea and the place of the second foreign languages like German and French is also hotly debated, the language assistants decided to hold an *Europäischen Kulturabend* to boost the profile of these languages and countries. The deans and university management were invited to an evening programme comprising cocktails and introductory speeches (in French and German with Korean translations), a slide show accompanied by music and finally a French and German buffet. This event was very successful, although the long-term benefits are hard to determine. One positive result, however, was the intensified cooperation between the two departments.

Wollert (1996: 44-45) regrets the lack of cooperation between Korean and German colleagues given the current situation. He suggests that perhaps the discipline should follow the Chinese example, whereby foreign language assistants at universities and schools cooperate on numerous projects (despite there being far fewer foreign language assistants in China than in Korea). For instance, a Chinese-German dictionary, a regional textbook and the development of specialised degree programmes. Wollert maintains that this is one of the reasons the discipline in China has a much better image than in Korea.

Qualitative and quantitative measures are clearly needed to improve the discipline. Timmermann (1999: 481-482) believes one of the main reasons for the inadequacies in the German programmes offered in Korea has been the traditional training of university lecturers.⁵¹⁰ Most were educated as literature specialists, some as linguists, however, language courses form the bulk of their teaching load. Very few academics concern themselves with *DaF*. The importance of translation as part of the discipline's achievements in Korea is underlined by the fact that not only is it actively promoted, but it is at the same time a method many teachers utilise in language and literary courses. Nellen (1989: 15) calls for changes in the training of German teachers, including training in *DaF* methodology, didactics and *LK*. He believes that *DaF* should be added to the curriculum as a subject at Korean universities and recognised as a practice-oriented subject.

⁵¹⁰ Cf. Rhie 1997a: 15.

Rhie (1997a: 13-14) believes German degrees for Koreans should primarily focus on *DaF*, but this is precisely what is being neglected. Literary or linguistic studies are emphasised, while areas such as practical language usage and area studies are neglected or even ignored completely. He maintains that Germanistik in countries other than the German-speaking countries should be based on the fundamentals of *DaF* and calls for the *KGDaF* to develop relevant courses. According to Rhie, one cannot expect the development of a model curriculum and modern textbooks and teaching materials without discussion of *DaF*. For this reason graduates of German possess partial literary and linguistics skills but do not possess the relevant language and area studies competencies. As the latter two are what graduates may need in their later careers and in society as a whole, this leads to great frustration, a lack of motivation and a relatively negative image of German graduates in society and the employment market.

Others, including Lie (1987: 89), believe that *DaF* needs to be systematically introduced into the discipline, taking the unique characteristics of the Korean situation into consideration:

Wenn Deutsch als Fremdsprache in Südkorea eine feste Basis haben soll, muß man zuerst die jetzige Situation der Schulen und Universitäten, die Zahl der Schüler und Studenten, die Einrichtung und das Ziel des Unterrichts klar beleuchten. Man sollte dabei keine ideale Vorstellung, sondern eher eine realistische haben. Man könnte anfangen, ein Lehrbuch zu schreiben, das nicht nur auf Grammatik, sondern auch auf Aussprache und Konversation angelegt ist und für unsere Schüler zum Lernen angemessen ist.

Lie (1984: 37-38) believes more research into the actual situation of German in Korean schools and universities and the promotion of real solutions to this situation is required.⁵¹¹ For instance, a textbook aimed at not only grammar, but also pronunciation and conversation for Korean pupils could be produced with the cooperation of the *DAAD*, *Goethe-Institut* and Korean and German Germanisten. Postgraduate courses in *DaF* could also be offered, particularly at the College of Education. Lie also contends that suitable textbooks in general would improve the standard of German in Korea. Most agree that the textbooks and teaching materials utilised in German programmes need to be urgently updated and improved. Rohrer (1996: 130-136) describes the latest developments in textbooks and says that factors such as the changes in geopolitical powers, the situation of German after reunification, the inclusion of area studies topics and the new *Rechtschreibung* need to be included and actively taught in German courses.⁵¹²

According to Kohz (1997: 30), the Korean MOE has decided it needs to compensate for the criticism that globalisation essentially means Americanisation in Korea and so plans to incorporate second foreign languages into the university entrance examination by 2001 at the latest. In 1996 the Korean government also expressed its intentions to promote second foreign languages more. Kohz (1997: 30-31) describes these developments as encouraging,

⁵¹¹ Cf. Nellen 1989: 15; Rhie 1997a: 13-14.

⁵¹² Cf. Hann 1984: 312; Wollert 1996: 45.

but warns these do not mean the discipline is out of the crisis yet because the reforms introduced in the mid 1990s still threaten German departments and the factors that led to the 'crisis' in the first place remain.

Many innovations introduced have aimed to make the Korean discipline an internationally competitive one, but many have tended to ignore the desire to be independent and the historical, political, economic and social parameters and different priorities of the Korean discipline (Hann 1984: 312-313). The reaction of many professors and teaching staff has been one of resignation, uncertainty and anxiety, while others have more or less changed the orientation of their teaching programme to suit student demand by increasing, for example, the number of *LK* courses or courses on contemporary topics (Wollert 1999: 11). One provincial university has undertaken a publicity drive including coloured brochures promoting career prospects for subject combinations with a major in German and information seminars on campus. Such initiatives have mainly been organised by part-time staff.⁵¹³ Many of the achievements of the discipline are due to the efforts of individuals, according to Rhie (1997a: 13-14).

Before any major reorientation within the discipline can occur, however, there are a huge number of basic factors that need to be addressed, such as the need for drastic reform of the teaching methods, the content of curriculum and the overall objectives of the discipline. According to Schmidt (1996: 37), the will and desire to change exists within the discipline but there is a reluctance to let go of outdated teaching methods, an apparent contradiction in Korean Germanistik.⁵¹⁴

Die Germanistik in Korea, ebenso wie in allen andern Ländern, muß nicht die Germanistik in Deutschland sein, sondern sie kann [...] eigene Akzente und Arbeitsbereiche setzen.

⁵¹³ Some professors are now teaching courses previously taught by the part-time staff (for example, the first year courses) in order to fill the required number of teaching hours. At another university a full-time professor's position is now rotated between two part-time teachers every two years, but can be abolished without warning at any time.

⁵¹⁴ Cf. Yim 1986: 108; Choe 1991: 94-103; Kim 1992: 138, 141; Rhie 1994: 238; 1997a: 13; Timmermann 1999: 481.

II.4 German in Australia.

II.4.1 Introduction.

While English is Australia's de facto official language there are also approximately 200 Aboriginal and 100 community languages,⁵¹⁵ including German, used regularly in Australia today (Lo Bianco 1987: 10, 64-65; Truckenbrodt 1997: 17-18).⁵¹⁶ Ethnolinguistic diversity existed before and during the early days of European settlement despite an official policy of monolingualism and assimilation until the 1970s. Australia now has a comprehensive National Policy on Languages.⁵¹⁷ Clyne (1991e: 2) describes the situation as being:⁵¹⁸

characteristic of a tension that has existed throughout the history of white settlement in Australia, between three symbolic relationships of language and society: English monolingualism as a symbol of a British tradition; English monolingualism as a marker of Australia's independent national identity; and multiculturalism as both social reality and part of the ideology of a multicultural and outreaching Australian society.

During the past two decades Australia has changed its policy from one of assimilation and integration of the immigrating minority groups to one of multiculturalism, although monolingual attitudes persist in some sectors of society (Myers 1995: ix-x; Patience 1995: 9-10).

In general though the promotion of second language learning in Australia has increased and there has been a growing awareness that (Education Victoria 1999):⁵¹⁹

social, vocational and educational advantages accrue to students who learn a second or subsequent language and that the nation as a whole gains economic advantage and international credibility from having a multilingual population.

Given the political and economic reorientation of Australia during the past two decades, the Asian languages have become increasingly important and increasingly promoted by governments. However, there is clearly a need for foreign languages, both Asian and European (and other), for business and political purposes as Australia relies heavily on the export sector (Lo Bianco 1987: 49, 53, 60-61).⁵²⁰ The paradox between the policy of multiculturalism and multilingualism and the recent trend towards promoting only those languages considered economically beneficial is referred to by Schauer (1990: 7-8):

Wir hören zurzeit oft, daß den australischen Schülern und Studenten mehr asiatische Sprachen angeboten werden sollten. Als Begründung werden die geographische Lage Australiens und ökonomische Notwendigkeiten angeführt. Ich finde diese Anregung grundsätzlich gut, nur sollte eine Ausweitung des

⁵¹⁵ The term 'community languages' has been used since 1975 to denote languages other than English and the Aboriginal languages used within the Australian community (Clyne 1981: 98-100, 1982a: 2, 133-136, 1991a: 215-216, 1991e: 3).

⁵¹⁶ Cf. Clyne 1988: 22, 1991e: 1-2; Makin 1992: 33; Djité 1994: 109; Myers 1995: ix-x.

⁵¹⁷ See section II.4.2.2 for further details.

⁵¹⁸ Cf. Petersen 1993: 1.

⁵¹⁹ Cf. Corkhill & Lee 1999.

⁵²⁰ Cf. Veit 1991: 369-370, 1999: 252-253.

Sprachangebots nicht auf Kosten der europäischen Sprachen gehen. Zum einen gilt es, die tiefen kulturellen Wurzeln der Mehrheit der Australier und der australischen politischen, wirtschaftlichen und kulturellen Lebensformen in Europa zu erhalten, zum anderen sind die wirtschaftlichen Argumente für das Erlernen europäischer Sprachen mindestens so stark wie für die Aneignung asiatischer Sprachen.

II.4.2 Foreign Languages in the Australian School System: With a Particular Emphasis on German.

II.4.2.1 The introduction and development of foreign languages in Australia: a historical perspective.

Prior to the arrival of the British settlers in the late 18th century, Australia was a multi-ethnic and multilingual continent with an estimated 300 tribes, each with its own culture and language. There were an estimated 300 000 Aborigines in 1788 and between 200 and 650 different languages. Immigration during the 18th, 19th and early 20th centuries led to a reduction in Aboriginal language diversity as English was promoted as part of a policy of assimilation imposed by the governments of the day, which believed that multilingualism hindered the implementation of their policies (Baldauf and Eggington 1983: 14, 17; Clyne 1991e: 1-2, 11-12; Djité 1994: 5-6).⁵²¹ The colonial governments called the natives *Aborigines* and attempted to force them to integrate into the predominately English civilisation. Children of Aborigines, for instance, were forcibly removed from their parents and brought up by European foster families. Today only eight Aboriginal languages are spoken by more than 1000 people each and of the approximately 200 languages remaining, only 50 are relatively healthy with a total of 60 000 speakers (Baldauf and Eggington 1983: 14, 17).⁵²²

The immigration of many ethnic groups to Australia is reflected in the range of languages (other than English) used in different parts of Australia by the 1860s, including Irish, Chinese, German, Gaelic, Welsh, French, the Scandinavian languages and Italian. The use of these languages was strongest in rural enclaves in which a community language was the language of the church, work and community domains as well as an important medium of (bilingual) schooling, such as the colonies of Victoria and South Australia (SA), whose main settlements were not convict colonies (Clyne 1982b, 1991e: 6-8). By 1848, for instance, there was a thriving German language press in SA and Victoria and later in New South Wales (NSW) and Queensland. Other community language papers (Chinese, French, Gaelic, Scandinavian and Welsh) followed (Clyne 1991e: 8).⁵²³

From the German-language newspapers it can be deduced that virtually all business transactions could be conducted in German in the central business districts of Melbourne and Adelaide in the 1860s and 1870s.

⁵²¹ Cf. Siliakus 1972; Mau 1983: 10-12; Kirwan 1992: 140-141; Triesch 1993: 87-93; Booth-Whiting 1993: 44-45; Rhie 1997d: 68.

⁵²² Cf. Lo Bianco 1990: 57-59; Petersen 1993: 8-9, 18-19; Geary 1997: 50-51.

⁵²³ Cf. Stoljar 1990.

There were regular church services in five languages in Melbourne and ethnic schools in various cities throughout Australia. According to Clyne (1991e: 8-10), community languages played the most influential role in education. Bilingual education was practiced from the 1850s onwards in both religious and secular schools. These schools were aimed initially at the children of particular ethnic backgrounds and emphasised language and or religious maintenance, but some attracted other pupils or were intended to provide a language immersion experience. A number of German-English and particularly French-English bilingual schools, renowned for their high standard of education, attracted a significant number of pupils from English-speaking backgrounds.⁵²⁴ This was a reflection of the importance attached to second language learning in parts of Australia in the second half of the 19th century.

Languages other than English (LOTE)⁵²⁵ were widely taught in primary schools during the 19th century. Secondary schools generally offered French and Latin, although many also offered German and Italian. Saturday and Sunday schools and some primary and secondary schools also offered before and after school classes in community languages. At that time schools were registered as 'common schools' on the basis of certain requirements and standards, but official policy did not establish a norm regarding the accepted language and culture, so mainstream education was not exclusively monolingual or monocultural. Education Acts passed in most colonies between 1872 and 1880, however, declared monolingual state schools to be the mainstream school sector. Because state education was free, compulsory and secular, schools offering a religious component were required to become private schools, and many (except the Lutheran schools) did not survive these reforms. Consequently less LOTE were taught in schools (Clyne 1991e: 10-11; Tisdell 1999b: 469).

From the 1880s onwards an increasingly monolingual and monocultural policy was adopted despite Australian society being essentially multicultural. The English-only language policy introduced during WWI included a ban on the use of LOTE as the medium of instruction in registered schools and on publications in German and forced most German place-names in Australia to be changed (Clyne 1991a: 216-220, 1991e: 12-13).⁵²⁶ Bilingual schools were essentially forced out of existence and language communities, such as Russian, Italian and German, began to use English more explicitly. Clyne (1991e: 14) describes the attitude towards community languages as being "very negative in accordance with restrictive immigration policies, both in numbers and sources of migrants." Similar anti-German and

⁵²⁴ Cf. Tisdell 1999b: 468-470.

⁵²⁵ LOTE is the term used to denote languages other than English. Due to the composition of the Australian population, these are often community languages as well as international or foreign languages taught in schools and universities (Peddie 1991c: 40-41). The author has chosen to use the terms 'community languages' and 'LOTE' as can be found in the Australian literature despite the debate about these terms (cf. Kretzenbacher 1998: 6-8).

⁵²⁶ Cf. Petersen 1993: 10-11.

Asian sentiments continued during WWII and this further reduced the teaching and use of community languages.

During the postwar years community languages began to be used again in some spheres of public life, although the official policy remained one of assimilation and English continued to be the language of education (Clyne 1991e: 15-18). The postwar immigration scheme, enacted in 1947 to provide a workforce for Australia and to boost the population, contributed further to the expansion and diversification of the LOTE in Australia (Clyne 1991e: 6).⁵²⁷ According to Clyne (1981: 2, 1985: 1-4), this programme introduced a marked change to the composition of Australia's population, eating habits, attitudes to immigrants and community languages and led eventually to the move towards multiculturalism.⁵²⁸ Community languages are now used in a range of domains in Australia, including at home and with family and friends, in religious and secular community groups, in the ethnic press, on radio, on SBS television, in libraries, at work (although English is the main language of communication) and in the education sector (Clyne 1982a: 57-92, 1991e: 112-156).⁵²⁹

Prior to 1976 few statistics were available on language use in Australia (although the 1937 census gathered information on the ability of Australians to read and write in a LOTE) (Clyne 1991e: 37). The 1976 census was the first to elicit data on the use of specific languages and found that 12.3 percent of the population over the age of five reported using a LOTE regularly (Clyne 1985: 1-4, 1991e: 40-41).⁵³⁰ The most commonly used LOTE in 1976 were (Clyne 1982a: 12, 1991e: 38-39):⁵³¹

Italian	444 672
Greek	262 177
German	170 644
Serbo-Croatian	142 407
French	64 851
Dutch	64 768
Polish	62 945
Arabic	51 284
Spanish	48 343
Maltese	45 922

A decade later the 1986 census found that 13.6 percent of the population used a LOTE at home. The states least affected by postwar migration had the lowest reported levels (Queensland 5.9 and Tasmania 3.6) while Victoria, for instance, had 18.5 percent (Clyne

⁵²⁷ Cf. Siliakus 1972; Petersen 1993: 12-16.

⁵²⁸ Cf. Birch 1983; Smolicz & Secombe 1985.

⁵²⁹ Cf. Apelt 1975: 25; Clyne 1974: 130-136; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 86-93.

⁵³⁰ Cf. Birch 1983; Ozolins 1993: 149-150.

⁵³¹ There are, of course, differences in the distribution and maintenance of community languages between the states in Australia because of the composition of the population, immigration and settlement patterns of the different language groups (Clyne 1982a: 5, 1991e: 25-27, 36-111). The percentage of community LOTE users is especially high in the Northern Territory (NT), where the Aboriginal languages are widely spoken, and in Victoria, due to the high number of immigrants, but low in Queensland and Tasmania, which have been less affected by postwar immigration (Clyne 1981: 4-14, 1982a: 14, 1985: 1-4).

1991a: 215-216, 1991e: 40-41).⁵³² The ten most commonly used LOTE were (Clyne 1991e: 39-43):

Italian	415 765
Greek	277 472
Croatian/Serbian/ Serbo-Croatian/ Yugoslav	140 575
Chinese	139 100
Arabic	119 187
German	111 276
Spanish	73 961
Polish	68 638
Vietnamese	65 856
Dutch	62 181

The changes in the top ten LOTE in Australia are an indication of the decline of the traditional European languages. The German language community, for instance, is no longer the third largest non-English group, but rather the sixth largest after the Italian, Greek, Serbo-Croatian, Chinese and Arabic communities (Clyne 1992: 194).⁵³³ French is no longer one of the ten most commonly used languages. A number of languages, such as Chinese and Arabic, have experienced substantial increases between 1976 and 1986, and Vietnamese, which was relatively insignificant in 1976, had substantial numbers by 1986. Factors contributing to these changes include the large-scale settlement of refugees, new migrants and students, the high language maintenance rate for languages such as Arabic and the birth of a second (or even third) generation (Clyne 1991e: 44-56). The 1991 census subsequently found that circa 14.8 percent of the population (which totalled circa 17 million) used a LOTE at home (Truckenbrodt 1997: 17-18).⁵³⁴

The significance of the different waves and sources of immigration to the introduction and development of foreign languages in Australia is reflected in the findings of the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia's (NLLIA) 1993 profiling study of the nine key languages in Australian education and society (Fernandez *et al.* 1993a; Djité 1994: 89-153). The nine key languages include languages with a long history of migration such as Chinese, French, German, Greek and Italian and those with a more recent history of migration such as Arabic, Indonesian/Malay, Japanese and Spanish. These nine languages are well represented in all forms of the media and are supported by an active network of clubs and associations throughout Australia. For instance, the Greek-Australian community supports the teaching of Modern Greek at the tertiary level by funding a number of lectureships in Victoria, New South Wales (NSW) and Western Australia (WA) and endowing one of the two existing chairs of Modern Greek Studies. The first Greek community organisation dates back to 1923, and by 1992, the number of community organisations and associations

⁵³² In 1983, 2404 600 or 17.3 percent of the circa 16 million people in Australia spoke a LOTE, according to Lo Bianco (1987: 9).

⁵³³ Cf. Petersen 1993: 18-23.

⁵³⁴ Cf. Clyne 1988: 22, 1991e: 1-2; Makin 1992: 33; Djité 1994: 109.

dedicated to promoting Greek folklore, culture and language had increased to over 800. This study found that during the past fifteen years there has been an overall increase in the non-English speaking population of Australia, particularly in the case of the Chinese, Arabic, Spanish, Indonesian/Malay and Japanese communities (Djité 1994: 109; Piening 1997: 163).

Although the first official settlement of **Chinese** was recorded in 1827, the number of Chinese immigrants remained relatively small until the discovery of gold in Victoria and NSW. Economic depression subsequently caused anti-Chinese feeling in the community and resulted in the introduction of several state Acts against Chinese immigration. It was not until 1966, when non-Europeans were again admitted as permanent residents in Australia, that the numbers began to increase again. An estimated 217 000 individuals use a Chinese language (including Cantonese and Mandarin) at home in Australia (Djité 1994: 98-99).

French has a long history in Australia as one of the major languages in education, as a cultural language in the Arts and as a trade language, but is the native language of relatively few immigrants. In the 1986 census 52 790 people used French at home, but by 1991 this figure had fallen to 45 682 (Djité 1994: 100).

Greek immigration to Australia began in 1896 and was influenced by economic conditions and major events, such as the Balkan Wars (1912 to 1913) and the Asia Minor Disaster (1922). A similar influx was experienced in 1974 after political upheaval in Cyprus. However, since then there has been a steady decline in the number of Greek immigrants and many have returned to Greece. Greek-speaking residents were estimated at 286 000 in 1994. The Greek community is diverse with many tracing their roots to Cyprus, Egypt, the Middle East, Asia Minor, the former Soviet Union and other European countries. Modern Greek is the standard form of the language used within the community, which has the highest percentage of speakers who do not use English regularly (Clyne 1982, 1991a; Djité 1994: 102-103).

In 1901 there were fewer than 6000 **Italians**, however, by 1991 this figure had increased to 418 800 or over 2.6 percent of the total population, making this the most widely spoken language in Australian homes after English. The Italian community is diverse, and this is reflected in the numerous organisations such as the Comitato Assistenza Italiano (COASIT), with branches in Melbourne, Sydney and Brisbane, and community organisations, such as the Dante Alighieri society in Melbourne and the Italian Culture and Welfare Association (ICWA) in Hobart. The Italian government also supports the community's activities through financial grants for Education Consultants and Italian Language Teaching Advisors, lectureships and publications (Djité 1994: 103-104).

In 1992 there were at least 163 000 speakers of **Arabic** of Lebanese, Egyptian, Syrian, Palestinian and other backgrounds, and it was one of the fastest growing language communities in Australia (Djité 1994: 105-106). Djité (1994: 106-107) found that it was not until the mid 1960s (due to the White Australia Policy) that **Indonesians and Malaysians** started to migrate to Australia permanently. Circa 30 000 now live mainly in and around Sydney, Melbourne and Perth. The community is complex and its various component groups (Indonesians of Dutch, Chinese, Malay, Indian, etc. descent) are not precisely documented.

At the turn of the century there were 3500 **Japanese** living in Australia. This has been one of the fastest growing language communities in recent years increasing to circa 21 100 by 1991, partly due to the number of Japanese companies establishing subsidiaries in Australia. The Japanese community is different from the others as it falls into two groups: temporary migrants or residents consisting mainly of businessmen and professionals and their families and students and the permanent Japanese community (Djité 1994: 107).

Circa 90 300 **Spanish**-speaking people live in Australia, mainly in NSW. The community's diversity is reflected in the numerous Spanish-speaking clubs and cultural and sporting organisations including the Spanish and Latin American Association for Social Assistance (SLASA), the Spanish-speaking Education Council and the Chilean Association (Djité 1994: 108-109).

German has a long history as a significant community language in Australia. Johann Reinhold Forster was among the first recorded Germans to come to Australia with Captain Cook on his travels. A number of German-speaking people were sent as convicts on the British transportation ships (Harmstorf and Cigler 1985: 6; Gabel 1990: 3). German-speaking immigration can be traced back to the earliest European colonisation with German-speaking immigrants amongst those who arrived in Australia on the First Fleet. In the 1830s significant numbers of German-speaking immigrants began to arrive in Australia and numbers increased during the subsequent decades (Djité 1994: 100-102).⁵³⁵ By 1891 there were 45 000 German-speaking immigrants in Australia. During the late 19th century German-speaking immigrants and their Australian-born descendants constituted the largest non Anglo-Celtic group in Australia, although they were much less influential than English-speaking immigrants (Voigt 1987: 7, 12).⁵³⁶ Numerous place names in Australia are evidence of the numbers who settled here and approximately 12 percent of Australians can trace their heritage back to German-speaking immigrants (Gabel 1990: 3).

⁵³⁵ Cf. Wacker 1965: 11; Jupp & McRobbie 1989; Petersen 1993: 9-10; Taku 1996: 108.

⁵³⁶ Cf. Clyne 1992: 194; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 1; Booth-Whiting 1993: 3; Taku 1996: 108.

Diplomatic and trade relations between the countries began in the 1840s with the establishment of the first German consulate in Australia. At the 1879/1880 World Exhibition in Sydney the German Reich was represented by 723 firms, and in Melbourne a year later by 1080 firms. German firms, such as Krupp, Siemens, AEG and Bayer, became increasingly involved in the development of the mining, railways and manufacturing sectors (Voigt 1987: 81-100).

The second significant wave of German-speaking immigrants came in the late 1930s during the economic crisis in Germany and when the National Socialists came to power (Gabel 1990: 3; Djite 1994: 100-102).⁵³⁷ During the two world wars there was strong anti-German sentiments in Australia, which included bans on the immigration of Austrians and Germans to Australia and the internment of circa 6900 'Germans' during WWI. However, after WWII German art, music and literature became popular again, trade relations normalised surprisingly quickly and diplomatic relations resumed in 1952 (Voigt 1987: 121-150, 1988; Fischer 1988; Waas 1996: 38).⁵³⁸ After WWII a large number of Germans arrived in Australia under the post-war immigration programme. During the 1980s and 1990s migration from German-speaking Europe has been mainly professional people.⁵³⁹

German-speaking immigrants included diverse groups such as religious (Old Lutheran) refugees to SA in the 1830s to 1850s fleeing from Silesia, Pomerania, East Prussia and Brandenburg where the King of Prussia had united the Lutheran and Reformed churches; migrants who arrived later in the 19th century and with their descendants founded new settlements in SA, Victoria and Queensland; pre-WWII refugees from National Socialism; the Templars, a Swabian Protestant group who had formed closed settlements in Palestine between 1865 and 1873 and most of whom were deported to Australia in 1941 and interned for the duration of WWII; displaced persons from the former German Eastern provinces and from the Baltic states, Poland and other countries of Central and Eastern Europe; refugees from the GDR who had fled to the FRG and later immigrated to Australia, and more recently migrants from German-speaking Europe who immigrated to improve their economic conditions or lifestyle (Clyne 1972: 49-52, 1974: 122-131, 1981: 3-4, 22-29, 1982b, 1992: 193-195).⁵⁴⁰

According to Djite (1994: 100-102), the German-speaking community includes not only those who speak German as their first language, but also a substantial number whose second language is German, such as ethnic Germans from Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland and a number of Italian, Greek, Yugoslav and Turkish immigrants who have been guest workers in

⁵³⁷ Cf. Clyne 1982b; Petersen 1993: 10-11; Waas 1996: 38-40.

⁵³⁸ Cf. Clyne 1972: 54-56; Harmstorf & Cigler 1985: 35-37, 120-147, 172-173; Saunders 1988; Moses 1988.

⁵³⁹ Cf. Harmstorf & Cigler 1985: 148-155; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 1-2; Booth-Whiting 1993: 12-13.

⁵⁴⁰ Cf. Mau 1983: 13-16; Harmstorf & Cigler 1985: 93-101; Voigt 1987: 79; Brändle 1988b; Erdmann 1988; Yarwood 1988; Jurgensen 1990: 334; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 1-2; Booth-Whiting 1993: 5-26; Petersen 1993: 8-13, 16-17.

German or Switzerland.⁵⁴¹ Research into the use of the language suggests that German is not very well maintained in Australia and that the majority of the users are older people who were born overseas. The language shift rate and the rate of exogamous marriages are high and consequently, the German-speaking community decreased from a total of 170 644 in 1976 to 111 276 in 1986, although it increased slightly again to 113 300 by 1991.⁵⁴²

Historically the largest number of German speakers lived in NSW, Victoria, SA and Queensland. SA, Queensland and Victoria, in particular, have strong historical ties with the German language as many of the early German-speaking immigrants settled in rural areas of these states. Until the 1930s Queensland had the largest German-speaking population, but more recently the majority have settled in the metropolitan and urban areas, such as the greater Sydney area (Jupp and McRobbie 1989).⁵⁴³ Although German is one of the nation's largest language groups, the public visibility and general profile of the German community are low (Waas 1996: 15-16, 57-58, 171-172). This is partially because German-speakers are widely and evenly distributed throughout Australia (relative to population size in each state) and there are few concentrations comparable to those in the Barossa Valley in the 19th century.⁵⁴⁴

For many years German was the language of bilingual schooling, the church, work and community domains in the predominantly German-speaking communities. The first German school was established in 1836 by Pastor Kavel to provide instruction in core subjects including religion, German and English grammar, spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, natural history and singing for the children of the newly arrived immigrants (Voigt 1987: 38-40; Djité 1994: 100-102; Tisdell 1995: 140, 1999b: 468-470).⁵⁴⁵ English was taught because it was considered to be of equal importance to High German. The bilingual rural schools run by Lutheran synods, mainly in SA and Victoria, provided basic primary education similar to that available in Germany (although adapted to the Australian environment) with an emphasis on religious and moral education to the German-speaking communities (Clyne 1991e: 9-10).⁵⁴⁶ There were three main models of bilingual school at that time: (i) division according to subject and time of day. In Lutheran primary schools literacy skills were taught in both languages, Mathematics in English, Religion in German and History and Geography divided between the languages according to content. (ii) Division according to subject and teacher. Many private bilingual schools had a German and an English-medium teacher who taught different subjects. (iii) Division according to language and culture, whereby most subjects were taught in English but the programme

⁵⁴¹ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 2, 17-18, 80.

⁵⁴² Trends in language usage, shift and maintenance in Australia are well documented in the works of Michael Clyne (1972, 1974, 1981, 1982a, 1985, 1991a, 1991b, 1991e and 1992) and others, such as Pauwels 1985, Jupp & McRobbie 1989, Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 80-85, Jupp 1995 and Waas 1996: 41-51, so shall not be discussed further within this study.

⁵⁴³ Cf. Apelt 1975: 23-24; Erdmann 1988; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 1; Booth-Whiting 1993: 14-15; Waas 1996: 57-58.

⁵⁴⁴ Cf. Clyne 1972: 7-8, 11-12, 49-71, 1981: 15-21, 1982b.

⁵⁴⁵ Cf. Harmstorf & Cigler 1985: 71-81; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 1; Booth-Whiting 1993: 12.

⁵⁴⁶ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 1; Petersen 1993: 9-10; Tisdell 1999b: 468-470.

included a significant component of German language, literature and cultural history (Clyne 1991e: 10).

In 1906 there were circa 60 bilingual German-English schools in Australia. Their importance was diminished as the mainstream education system developed because these schools were not recognised as part of mainstream education (Tisdell 1995: 142). In addition, instruction through German and publication in the language were banned during the two world wars as German was perceived as the language of the enemy (Djite 1994: 100-102).⁵⁴⁷ Anti-German feelings and the official policy of assimilation that continued into the 1960s further reduced the importance of these schools. And although new schools were established as more German-speaking people immigrated to Australia, these received no support or recognition from the government and were run by volunteers and teachers who often lacked the necessary training. The classes comprised students of different ages and abilities who often resented having to attend on Saturday mornings because it clashed with their recreational activities (Tisdell 1995: 143-145).

Despite this the German community is one of the most active in Australia (Petersen 1993: 26-28; Djite 1994: 100-102; Waas 1996: 123). Because German is a traditional community and school language, there is a well-established support network (comprising language advisors, the *Goethe-Institut*, German teacher associations and German government scholarships and study schemes) that plays a significant role in the maintenance and development of the language.⁵⁴⁸ The German community also has a significant number of social clubs, cultural societies and welfare and religious organisations (Catholic, Lutheran and Jewish).⁵⁴⁹ The library resources for German in most of the major cities are diverse and the language is represented in all forms of the media, including the German language newspapers, *Die Woche in Australien*, *Australische Post* and *The German Times*.⁵⁵⁰

The relations between the German-speaking countries and Australia and the contributions to Australian society by German-speaking immigrants date back to the earliest European colonisation of the continent in 1788.⁵⁵¹ The influence of German-speaking immigrants is visible in many aspects of Australian life, including the agriculture sector, the wine, mining and sugar cane industries, religion, the Arts, the Sciences, political life and the business

⁵⁴⁷ Cf. Wacker 1965: 92; Jupp & McRobbie 1989; Taku 1996: 108.

⁵⁴⁸ See also sections II.4.4.1 and II.4.4.2.

⁵⁴⁹ Cf. Harmstorf & Cigler 1985: 39-40, 52, 82-92, 156; Adams 1988; Clyne 1974: 132-136, 1981: 41-64, 1991b: 242, 1992: 199-200.

⁵⁵⁰ Cf. Clyne 1974: 135, 1981: 58-60, 79-80; Wacker 1965: 91-94; Jupp & McRobbie 1989; Corkhill 1995.

⁵⁵¹ It is beyond the scope of this study to detail the diverse and complex nature of these relations. For further details please refer to publications such as *Die Deutschen in Australien* by Augustin Lodewyckx (1932), *German Speaking Settlers in Australia* by Josef Vondra (1981), *The Contributions of German-Speaking Settlers to Australian Society* by E. J. Smith (1982), *The Germans in Australia* by Ian Harmstorf and Michael Cigler (1985), *The German Connection* edited by Leslie Bodi and Stephen Jeffries (1985), *Australia – Germany: Two Hundred Years of Contacts, Relations and Connections* by Johannes H. Voigt (1987), *The German Presence in Queensland Over The Last 150 Years* edited by Manfred Jurgensen and Alan Corkhill (1988), *1788 – 1988: 200 Years of Australia. German Contributions to the Bicentennial Celebrations. Australian Activities in the Federal Republic of Germany* produced by *Inter Nationes* (1988), *Australian zwischen Europa und Asien* edited by Gerhard Stütz and Rudolf Bader (1993) and *German-Australian Cultural Relations Since 1945* edited by Manfred Jurgensen (1995).

sector. Some important figures include the scientists Johannes Menge, Ludwig Leichhardt, Ferdinand von Müller and Amalie Dietrich, the architect Karl Langer, the Lutheran Pastor Johann G. Haussmann, the politicians Johann Heussler and Jacob Horwitz, the artist and linguist, Louis W. K. Wirth, the digger, photographer and politician, Bernard Holtermann, who found the largest specimen of reef gold at Hill End in NSW, Josef E. Seppelt, a wine maker in the Barossa Valley, one of the leaders of the Eureka Stockade, Friedrich Vern, Albert Breinl, who researched medical needs of the Aborigines of the NT, the former SA Attorney General, Hermann Homburg, Richard Goldmer who founded 'Musica Viva' in Sydney and the Professor of Political Science at La Trobe University, Hugo Wolfsohn.

Germany is currently Australia's ninth largest trading partner overall. It is the second largest export market for Australia within the European Union and the fourth largest supplier of imports to Australia after the US, Japan and the UK with bilateral trade in 1990 to 91 worth circa \$4.2 billion. However, the trade imbalance is considerable as imports from Germany are more than double Australia's exports to Germany (Djité 1994: 84-85; Wabenhorst 1997). Germany is the third largest EU investor in Australia after the UK and the Netherlands and major German companies are represented in Australia in a range of sectors, including the automotive industry, telecommunications, construction, environmental products and agrichemicals. The German-speaking countries form Australia's fifth most important international trading partner overall, according to Wabenhorst (1997). The EU is also an important trading partner of Australia taking 13.2 percent of Australia's exports in 1990 and supplying 22.4 percent of imports (Weber and Wulf 1993: 33; Brooking 1995: 34-35).⁵⁵²

The German market offers significant potential for Australian products, such as environmentally friendly products and technologies, given the large trade deficit Australia has with Germany. This means the potential for Australian exports to the German-speaking countries has not yet being exploited (Booth-Whiting 1993: 246-248; Wabenhorst 1997).⁵⁵³ Germany's Asia-Pacific Policy gives Australian businesses the opportunity to become joint venture partners for those German firms wanting to do business in Asia, "particularly those firms with Asian know-how and connections" (Brooking 1995: 23-24), a trend that is expected to continue to increase. Several companies, such as Hoechst and Hella, have already located their regional headquarters in Australia.⁵⁵⁴ The collapse of the GDR and the opening up of the Eastern European countries has brought new opportunities for Australian companies in those markets as well (Brooking 1995: 26-27). Another important area of growth is the service sector, particularly in tourism as an increasing number of Germans are visiting Australia. Wabenhorst (1997) contends that there is huge potential in the tourism sector as in 1995/1996 German-speaking tourists to Australia constituted only 4.4 percent of total visitors. This provides opportunities for those within the industry who have even basic

⁵⁵² Cf. Piening 1997: 163-165; Bretherton & Vogler 1999.

⁵⁵³ Cf. Mau 1983: 21-23; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 109-110; Gotz & Braun 1993; Weber & Wulf 1993: 38-40; Brooking 1995: 21-25; Voigt 1995; Fink 1995: 29-35; Zimmermann 1995; Veit 1999: 253-254.

⁵⁵⁴ Cf. Weber & Wulf 1993: 36-38; Fink 1995: 37-39; Veit 1999: 254.

German language competencies (Weber and Wulf 1993: 36-38; Booth-Whiting 1993: 250-251; Fink 1995 35).⁵⁵⁵

Within the European Union and the Eastern European countries, German has again become one of the leading languages of business, education and culture during the 1990s, according to Morgan (1991: 21), and if.⁵⁵⁶

Australia wants access to the markets of Europe, a significant number of Australians will have to speak fluent German. German must be given a high priority as a foreign language in secondary school, and students must be encouraged to study German language, society and culture at universities and other educational institutions.

II.4.2.2 Changes and reforms in the Australian school system since 1945.

The responsibility for the education system in Australia is devolved to the individual states and territories, except in the case of the universities and TAFE, which are funded and directed by the federal or Commonwealth government. The Commonwealth government funds education in two main ways, through a general grant and with funds for specific initiatives, however, state governments are responsible for providing 90 percent of the operational costs of their schools. There are three main 'systems' of education at the state level: the Government primary and secondary schools, the Catholic system (part of a nationwide Catholic network) and the Independent primary and secondary schools (Peddie 1991c: 28-30, 1993: 35; Petersen 1993: 46-57). The government system comprises primary schools from Years 1 to 6 (ages 5 to 12) followed by six years secondary schooling from Years 7 to 12 (ages 12 to 17 or 18), although the minimum school-leaving age is 15. Students completing Year 12 obtain the Higher School Certificate (HSC), which allows them entrance to tertiary level study, although some states have additional tertiary ranking tests. Most Catholic and independent schools are structured in the same way, although some have a two-year middle or intermediate school. Non-government schools charge tuition fees and the Commonwealth government provides approximately 25 percent of their funding provided the minimum educational standards set by the state are met (Booth-Whiting 1993: 30-35). In some states circa one third of pupils attend non-government schools.⁵⁵⁷

Each state has a central Ministry or Department of Education. Decisions made by the state are binding on the government schools but not on the Catholic or independent systems, although these tend to adopt similar policies at the secondary level (Peddie 1991c: 28-30). Language programmes are offered in the state and Catholic schools, but language programmes offered by independent schools depend on the ethnic groups at these schools and the history of language programmes in the particular area or state (Clyne 1991e: 122).

⁵⁵⁵ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 111; Kierchhoff 1993.

⁵⁵⁶ Cf. Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 41-43; Niebel 1988; Veit 1988: 30-31, 1991: 368; Booth-Whiting 1993: 232-246, 268-271; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 110-111; Petersen 1993: 44; Wabenhorst 1997; Horst 1998: 664, 667-669.

⁵⁵⁷ Cf. Mau 1983: 28-30.

Since WWII there has been considerable expansion and diversification in the education sector as in the other countries in this study (Keeves 1987c: 346).⁵⁵⁸ During the period from the 1950s to the 1980s changes and reforms in the education system included a greater devolution of responsibility for the curriculum and administration to regional offices and

schools or school councils, significant reductions in class sizes, the introduction of open area schools, provisions for handicapped and gifted students and the establishment of alternative schools (Keeves 1987b: 147-155).

The most significant change in the Australian education system since 1945 to impact on the teaching and learning of foreign languages has been the development of a national languages policy. According to Clyne (1991c: 3-7) the history of language planning in Australia can be divided into four phases:⁵⁵⁹

- The “accepting but *laissez-faire*” phase, until the mid-1870s;
- The “tolerant but restrictive” phase, from the 1870s to the early 1900s;
- The “rejecting” phase, from circa 1914 to circa 1970; and
- The “accepting – even fostering” phase, from the early 1970s onwards.

The first phase was characterised by the fact that there was no explicit policy concerning which language(s) could be taught in the education system or used in the media. There were numerous bilingual primary schools and a number of bilingual secondary schools. The second phase was characterised by the establishment of monolingual English-medium schools and by limitations being placed on the number of teaching hours allowed for LOTE in the non-government schools in some states. The third phase was characterised by the almost xenophobic reaction to foreigners (particularly German-speaking and Asian immigrants) during and after the two world wars and the strict regulation of foreign languages in both the education system and the media. The fourth phase reflected a policy change from assimilation towards multiculturalism as “all languages used in the Australian community were, to some extent, legitimised.” (Clyne 1991c: 6)⁵⁶⁰

According to Clyne (1981: 81-82, 1991e: 18-23, 1992: 200), the move towards multicultural and multilingual policies, which recognised the linguistic and cultural diversity of Australian society, reflected the worldwide ethnic rights movement at the time and formed part of the quest for national identity. Lo Bianco (1990: 51) contends that language planning and policy development in recent years have occurred “in response to social or economic problems which derive from language questions, or which have a strong language dimension [...or] to

⁵⁵⁸ Cf. Connell 1987: 33-34.

⁵⁵⁹ Cf. Baldauf & Eggington 1983: 14-26; Mau 1983: 36-48; Lo Bianco 1990: 52-53; Clyne 1991e: 10-18, 24-25; Petersen 1993: 29-36; Ozolins 1993; Taku 1996: 108.

⁵⁶⁰ Cf. Ingram 1983: 4-5; Ozolins 1985: 281-292, 1993: 1-16; Scarino *et al.* 1988:1; Lo Bianco 1990: 55-57; Petersen 1993: 1, 6-7, 15-16; Djité 1994: 7-9; Taku 1996: 108-109.

facilitate the achievement of established or emerging social, political or economic objectives of given societies.”⁵⁶¹

Debate about language planning and the development of a languages policy has been an issue in Australia since the mid 1970s (Mau 1983: 49-58; Ozolins 1993; Djité 1994: i). According to Djité (1994: 10-17), the development of Australia’s languages policy was influenced by three major factors:⁵⁶²

- The education of minority language children;
- The ‘crisis’ in the study of foreign languages in schools and universities during the late 1960s and early 1970s;⁵⁶³ and
- The change in direction of Australia’s relations away from Britain and other English-speaking countries and increasingly towards its Asia-Pacific neighbours and other non English-speaking countries.⁵⁶⁴

From WWI through to the 1960s, at the time the language policy in Australia was characterised by monolingualism, large numbers of non-English-speaking immigrants were being taken in (Ozolins 1985: 282; Taku 1996: 108).⁵⁶⁵ According to Petersen (1993: 13-15), immigrants from more than one hundred countries with over fifty different languages immigrated to Australia between 1947 and 1988. The implications for language learning and education in general of this and the fact that over one quarter of Australia’s population are from ethnic backgrounds other than anglo-celtic are clear. During the 1960s large scale English as a Second Language (ESL) programmes were implemented in schools and at the adult education level to address the needs of these immigrants. However, there was little response to calls for the introduction of Italian, Greek and other community language programmes. Some could be taken at Saturday morning schools or by correspondence and a limited number of LOTE were offered in schools and universities. Despite the need generated by an increasingly multilingual society, translation and interpretation services were inadequate. Few civil servants (such as teachers, employment officers and social workers) possessed community languages competencies. There were few LOTE resources available and LOTE in the press and other forms of media continued to be restricted by the English-only regulations implemented during WWI (Clyne 1982: 117-121, 1991e: 17).

Until the early 1970s the school system in Australia was based on the English model as were the subjects offered (Wykes and King 1968: 3-8).⁵⁶⁶ French, Latin⁵⁶⁷ and German (the latter two with considerably fewer students than French) were the most popular foreign languages, although different areas in Australia offered others according to the demand of significant

⁵⁶¹ Cf. Birch 1983; Lo Bianco 1987: 3-5.

⁵⁶² Cf. Clyne 1991e: 213-220; Truckenbrodt 1997: 17-18.

⁵⁶³ Cf. Wykes & King 1968.

⁵⁶⁴ Cf. Djité 1994: 14, 20-21, 28, 49; Taku 1996: 109.

⁵⁶⁵ Cf. Siliakus 1972; Mau 1983: 337-39; Petersen 1993: 12-16.

⁵⁶⁶ Cf. Veit 1991: 371, 1999: 255-257.

⁵⁶⁷ Latin owed its popularity to the numerous Catholic private schools in Australia at that time, according to Apelt (1975: 23).

numbers of immigrants. For instance, German was the language most commonly learnt in SA, Italian in North Queensland and Modern Greek in Melbourne, Victoria. Other languages offered to a small number of students in various states included Greek, Japanese, Italian, Hebrew, Russian, Indonesian and Chinese. These were taught mainly in the independent schools, which have traditionally offered more foreign languages than the government schools (Wykes 1966: 9; Clyne 1974: 131). From 1950 to 1960 French was the most popular foreign language with circa 45 percent of those taking a foreign language in Australia learning French as compared with 1 to 3 percent learning German (Wykes 1966: 8; Taku 1996: 108).⁵⁶⁸ German was considered a difficult language to learn so it was often offered only to the 'brighter' students. In addition, the effects of the two world wars contributed to the lesser status of German until the mid 1960s, when (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 3).⁵⁶⁹

the place of German in schools strengthened because German was beginning to be recognised – like French – as an important international language with a rich literary heritage and as a source language for much contemporary information.

Foreign languages were offered in only very few primary schools so were essentially a secondary school subject. Wykes and King (1968: 70-76, 78-82) found that despite the differences in the languages taught, the variety of school courses, examinations and university requirements in the different states, similarities, such as the emphasis on French, existed. They also found the need for diversification of the languages offered was one of the major issues facing the disciplines at the time given the increasingly multicultural society.⁵⁷⁰

The requirement by some Australian universities that students study a foreign language to matriculation level for access to certain tertiary programmes of study was abolished in the late 1960s and early 1970s.⁵⁷¹ Between 1967 and 1976 enrolments in foreign languages at matriculation level nationwide declined from circa 40 percent of all matriculation students to just 16 percent due to this policy change (Triesch 1993: 93; Djité 1994: 11).⁵⁷² By 1992 this figure had declined further to 12.5 percent (Braunert and Mosler 1995: 112). Rhie (1997d: 69-70) describes the decline in the motivation to learn a foreign language as these had lost their compulsory status in the curricula of both schools and universities in Australia:

Dies wurde mit Recht als Beweis dafür verstanden, daß Fremdsprachen und damit auch Deutsch als Fremdsprache nicht beliebt waren, als unnötig angesehen wurden. Die Mehrheit der Bevölkerung und Politiker in Australien war nicht von dem Wert eines Fremdsprachenstudiums zu überzeugen.

The 1970 Auchmuty Report into the importance of teaching Asian languages and cultures in Australia was evidence of the government's new policy direction away from its traditional trading partners and towards its Asian-Pacific neighbours, as was the introduction of the

⁵⁶⁸ Cf. Department of German 1970: 4; Siliakus 1972; Clyne 1974: 131, 1981: 68-73, 1982a: 118-121, 1991e: 17; Apelt 1975: 23; Petersen 1993: 31.

⁵⁶⁹ Cf. Department of German 1970: 7; Clyne 1981: 73-76.

⁵⁷⁰ Cf. Clyne 1982a: 119-121; Mau 1983: 73-76.

⁵⁷¹ WA had abolished the requirement in 1956 (Booth-Whiting 1993: 41).

⁵⁷² Cf. Wykes 1966: 6-7, 12, 49; Siliakus 1972; Ingram 1983: 6-7; Mau 1983: 94; Ozolins 1985: 295-296, 1993: 15-16, 85-98, 174-192; Brändle 1988a: 43; Booth-Whiting 1993: 40-41.

Asian languages (Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian/Malay) into the curricula of schools and universities during the 1970s.⁵⁷³ Smolicz (1987: 317) contends that the:⁵⁷⁴

beginnings of a more 'international' approach towards Asia and to the teaching of Asian and other non-classical and 'traditional modern' languages were marked by Australia's increasing awareness of itself as an independent nation in world affairs, and a growing recognition of its geographical position in Asian and the Pacific. This involved the introduction of the languages, histories and cultures of Australia's [...] neighbours and trading partners.

The importance of these immigration, language education and political and economic reorientation issues remained on the political agenda, and by 1977 "official attitudes concerning the rights, cultures and languages of immigrant communities and of Aborigines had undergone important changes. The Fraser Government's commitment to this new language policy paved the way for the policy of multiculturalism." (Djité 1994: 13)⁵⁷⁵ A number of subsequent inquiries and reports and the eventual publication of policy documents such as the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts' 1984 report, *A National Language Policy*, Lo Bianco's *National Policy on Languages (NPL)* in 1987 and the 1991 *Australian Language and Literacy Policy (ALLP)* was further indication of successive governments' commitment to addressing language-related issues in Australia (Djité 1994: i, 13-17).⁵⁷⁶

The 1984 Senate Report concluded that a national languages policy should be developed and coordinated at the national level on the basis of four principles (Clyne 1991c: 9).⁵⁷⁷

- Competence in English;
- Maintenance and development of LOTE;
- Provision of services in LOTE; and
- Opportunities for learning second languages.

The report suggested Japanese, Indonesian, Chinese, French, German, Spanish, Arabic and perhaps Russian and two or three Aboriginal languages be retained as priority languages, but also emphasised the importance of catering for other languages. Two years after the report was published, little had been implemented and intense public lobbying for a national languages policy continued. Joseph Lo Bianco was then appointed to develop a national languages policy (Clyne 1991c: 11; Djité 1994: 17-18).⁵⁷⁸

The 1987 *National Policy on Languages (NPL)* produced by Lo Bianco contained (Ozolins 1993: 243).⁵⁷⁹

⁵⁷³ Cf. Ozolins 1993: 100-103.

⁵⁷⁴ Cf. Ingram 1983: 5-6; Triesch 1993: 89-93.

⁵⁷⁵ Cf. Clyne 1981: 81-104, 1982a: 121-147, 1985a, 1991c: 7-9; Ammon 1991a: 494-495; Veit 1991: 372, 1999: 257-258; Birch 1983; Ingram 1983; Ozolins 1985: 281-292, 1993: 109-155, 157-215; Smolicz 1987: 316; Truckenbrodt 1997: 17.

⁵⁷⁶ Cf. Lo Bianco 1990: 47-48; Ozolins 1991; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 62-63; Petersen 1993: 37-44.

⁵⁷⁷ Cf. Ozolins 1985: 293, 1993: 215-242; Clyne 1991e: 220-224, 1992: 200-201; Booth-Whiting 1993: 42.

⁵⁷⁸ Cf. Ingram 1983; Kirwan 1992: 141; Triesch 1993: 93-96.

⁵⁷⁹ Cf. Clyne 1991e: 226-230; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 1; Booth-Whiting 1993: 60-65.

very clear implementation goals and specific funding and organizational recommendations. It also represented some important shifts in rationale and objectives in language policy. [...]

He supported the four major goals of the Senate report in terms of English for all; maintaining languages; learning of second languages; and providing language services in appropriate languages. However, specific policy issues within most of these areas were more sharply etched, and related more closely to implementation strategies, than those in the Senate Committee report.

The *NPL* identified two main categories of LOTE:⁵⁸⁰ the languages used in the Australian community where language maintenance and bilingual education were advocated, and nine 'Languages of Wider Teaching' namely Arabic, Mandarin Chinese, French, German, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese and Spanish for which second language teaching was proposed in addition to any maintenance or immersion programmes (Djité 1994: 18-211).⁵⁸¹ These nine were regarded as reflecting both the internal (intercultural, community bilingualism) aims and the external (economic and international trade and relations) aims of the government.

The policy proposed the establishment of an Australian Second Language Learning Programme (ASLLP) with an allocation of AUS\$ 75 million a year for three years and a number of key centres of teaching and research. Lo Bianco also recommended the establishment of an Advisory Council on Australia's Language Policy to serve as a forum for discussion of language issues and to coordinate national activities on language issues, for instance. The government established the Australian Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education (AACLAME) instead, but its role is not significantly different from that contained in the *NPL*.⁵⁸²

One significant principle behind the development of the *NPL* was the belief that (Lo Bianco 1987: 45):

the justifications for language learning which exist in contemporary education have greatly diversified. Although there are powerful pragmatic justifications for teaching second languages and much second language learning occurs due to necessity rather than choice, cultural and intellectual benefits remain powerful reason for Australia to ensure continued and enhanced second language teaching.

According to Truckenbrodt (1997: 18), while the development of an explicit national languages policy which included the significance of the teaching and learning of LOTE in Australia was positive, even more important was the funding which enabled the objectives of the policy to be realised. Since 1987 many initiatives have been implemented to promote and provide for LOTE. Between 1987 and 1991 the Commonwealth Government allocated circa AUS\$ 94 million for the implementation of a number of key programmes contained in the *NPL*, including the National Aboriginal Languages Programme, the Asian Studies

⁵⁸⁰ In addition to issues concerning the language issues of Aboriginal communities and nationwide competency levels in English (Lo Bianco 1990: 59; Peddie 1991c: 31-32; Eggington 1994: 138-141).

⁵⁸¹ Cf. Lo Bianco: 120-155.

⁵⁸² Cf. Clyne 1991e: 241-242.

Programme, the Australian Second Languages Learning Programme, the Multicultural and Crosscultural Supplementation Programme, the Adult Literacy Action Campaign, the English as a Second Language for New Arrivals Programme and other initiatives such as the Australian Language Levels programme (Lo Bianco 1987: 204-269, 1990: 48-49, 59-67, 1991; Scarino *et al.* 1988; Djité 1994: 19).⁵⁸³

The Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET) undertook a *National Survey of Language Learning in Australian Schools* in 1988 and found that circa 2450 primary and secondary schools (government, independent and Catholic) taught one or more LOTE in Australia, most of which were in Victoria (771), Queensland (446), SA (413), WA (327) and NSW (300). These schools, however, represented less than one quarter of all Australian schools (DEET 1988: 1-2).⁵⁸⁴

There were approximately 222 000 primary school students studying 59 languages including circa 2600 students learning 24 Aboriginal languages. Over 61 percent were learning Italian. Other widely studied languages were French (circa 14 790), German (18 635) and Greek (11630). Students learning these four languages accounted for 82 percent of total language students. Those learning Mandarin, Indonesian and Japanese numbered circa 16 660 or 8 percent of total students. At the primary level schools generally offered a good range and combination of languages (DEET 1988: 3-7).

At the secondary level circa 382 840 students were studying 54 different languages including approximately 600 learning 14 Aboriginal languages. Students in French (circa 144 320), German (circa 75 700), Greek (12 255), Italian (circa 71 490) and Latin (10 120) accounted for 82 percent of total students numbers. Japanese was the fourth most popular language at this level with circa 30 000 students. Mandarin and Indonesian accounted for 14 percent of secondary students.

The proportion of primary school students taking languages as a proportion of total students varied between 4.8 percent in Tasmania and 25.5 percent in Victoria in 1988. The national average was 13 percent, however, four states (NSW, Queensland, WA and Tasmania) were below the national average. This does not reflect the number of languages studied in each state as some have comparatively small numbers in a wide range of languages while others have significant numbers in fewer languages. (In addition, more than 220 000 pupils learnt more than fifty LOTE in government-funded part-time ethnic schools and insertion classes conducted by 778 ethnic organisations in 1986, for instance (Clyne 1982a: 72-73, 1991e: 120, 129-131).) At the secondary level the proportion of students studying languages varied between 18.3 percent in WA and 45.4 percent in Victoria. The national average was 29.5

⁵⁸³ Cf. Smolicz 1987: 318-319; DEET 1991: 63-67; Clyne 1991c: 13-14, 1991e: 242-243, 1992: 201; Ozolins 1993: 248-251; Booth-Whiting 1993: 65, 187-195; Petersen 1993: 37-44; Rhie 1997d: 70-71.

⁵⁸⁴ Cf. Lo Bianco 1987: 26-29.

percent and again four states and territories (NSW, Queensland, WA and the NT) were below this (DEET 1988: 8).

The DEET survey (1988: 9-16) also found that 75 percent of primary school students taking a language studied a LOTE for one hour or less per week. Some of the languages with significant student numbers, such as Arabic, German, Greek, Hebrew, Spanish, Turkish and Vietnamese, were studied for more than one hour per week at this level. 63 percent and 58 percent respectively of secondary students were studying a LOTE in Year 7 and Year 8, a reflection of the fact that language study is compulsory at this level in many Australian schools. By Years 11 and 12, however, only about 9 percent of students were studying a LOTE.⁵⁸⁵ 21 percent of secondary language students learnt a LOTE for two hours per week or less, 58 percent studied a LOTE for two to three hours and 21 percent for more than three hours. The number of teaching hours generally increased in Years 11 and 12, and for those languages with significant student numbers, the number of teaching hours was also generally more than three hours per week.

Students learning the so-called first tier Asian languages (Japanese, Indonesian and Mandarin) amounted to circa 12 percent of total language students nationally (DEET 1988: 17). Another significant finding of the survey was that between 1983 and 1988 there has been a marked increase of 173 percent in the study of LOTE in primary schools due to the opportunities provided for by the new policies.⁵⁸⁶ However, at the secondary level there had been a decline of circa 18 percent (DEET 1988: 20). There had also been a change in the emphasis of languages studied between 1983 and 1988, with significant decreases in the numbers learning French (29 percent) and German (31 percent) and increases in those studying Greek (20 percent), Italian (68 percent), Spanish (47 percent), Japanese (98 percent) and Mandarin (169 percent) (DEET 1988: 21).⁵⁸⁷

The federal government published *The Language of Australia: Discussion Paper on an Australian Literacy and Language Policy for the 1990s* in 1990 and after subsequent submissions and changes to the draft, *Australia's Language: the Australian Language and Literacy Policy (ALLP)* in late 1991 (Djité 1994: 21-28). The latter outlined four overall goals (DEET 1991: 4; Djité 1994: 24).⁵⁸⁸

- All Australian residents should develop and maintain a level of spoken and written English which is appropriate for a range of contexts, with the support of education and training programs addressing their diverse learning needs;
- The learning of LOTE should be substantially expanded and improved to enhance educational outcomes and communication within both the Australian and international community;

⁵⁸⁵ Cf. Lo Bianco 1987: 26-29.

⁵⁸⁶ Cf. Clyne 1991e: 120.

⁵⁸⁷ Cf. Ozolins 1985: 295; Triesch 1993: 95-96.

⁵⁸⁸ Cf. Peddie 1991c: 34-36; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 64-65; Ozolins 1993: 252-254; Egginton 1994: 141-147.

- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages should be maintained and developed where they are still used and that other languages should be assisted in an appropriate way, for example, through recording. These activities, however, should only occur where the speakers so desire and in consultation with their community, for the benefit of the descendants of their speakers and for the nation's heritage;⁵⁸⁹ and
- Language services provided through interpreting and translating, print and electronic media and libraries should be expanded and improved.

The *ALLP* identified fourteen languages as priority languages, including the nine listed in the *NPL*, languages of significant ethnic communities, such as Aboriginal languages, Greek and Vietnamese, and languages of regional and economic importance including Korean, Russian and Thai. A key proposal of the *ALLP* was that each state or territory should identify eight of the priority languages as their own priority languages (DEET 1991: 76-77). The two major targets for LOTE contained in the *ALLP* were that by the year 2000, 25 percent of Year 12 students should be studying a LOTE and all Australians should have the opportunity to learn a LOTE appropriate to their needs (DEET 1991: 62; Eggington 1994: 146).⁵⁹⁰

After the implementation of the *ALLP*, funding was given to the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia (NLLIA)⁵⁹¹ (established in 1990) to conduct a study of the so-called nine 'Languages of Wider Teaching' that represent the bulk of second language learning in Australian education. These nine, Arabic, Chinese (Mandarin), French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese and Spanish, are a sub-set of the fourteen priority languages (Djité 1994: i, 2). From an international perspective the majority are among the top fifteen languages internationally in terms of native speakers, the top fifteen official languages by population and the top nine languages that rate highly in terms of trade or Gross Domestic Product (GDP).⁵⁹²

One major criticism of the *ALLP* was its strong emphasis on languages considered economically significant, particularly the Asian languages.⁵⁹³ Government funding for languages at the tertiary level since the late 1980s has been directed primarily at Asian languages. For instance, federal funding of AUS\$ 48 million was allocated to Asian language education over four years from 1994. Initiatives undertaken include the professional development of Asian language teachers, the establishment of Asian Studies scholarship programmes, curriculum development, the establishment of a Key Centre for Asian Languages and Studies and funding for additional student intakes in Asia-related

⁵⁸⁹ Cf. Baldauf & Eggington 1983; Gale *et al.* 1987; Baldauf & Luke 1990.

⁵⁹⁰ Cf. Booth-Whiting 1993: 72-76.

⁵⁹¹ Cf. <http://www.nllia.gov.au> (17 July 2001).

⁵⁹² Cf. Djité 1994: 89-90.

⁵⁹³ Cf. Ammon 1991a: 493; Clyne 1991e: 35, 230-232, 239-240, 1997: 128-130; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 64-65; Stoljar 1993: 389; Djité 1994: 73-88; Horst 1998: 666.

courses (DEET 1991: 65-66).⁵⁹⁴ This emphasis on the economic importance of foreign languages has resulted in increased (and often unrealistic) expectations and enrolments (Braunert and Mosler 1995: 112). Japanese, in particular, is considered to be *the* business foreign language and in order to meet the demand for teachers at all levels in the subject, teachers of French and German in NSW, for instance, have been retrained to teach Japanese! According to Woolcott (1997: 4), Australia is firmly focused on the potential of the Asian markets and is “increasingly and comprehensively engaged with East Asia through continuously growing security, economic, political and cultural, including educational, networks.” Clyne (1991e: 231) contends that the:⁵⁹⁵

unfortunate and continuing emphasis of competition [between the LOTE] is undermining the opportunities presented by the unprecedented appreciation of the national asset of multilingualism, at least in the economic context. [...] Proponents of community languages have had to develop economic rationales in favour of their languages [...]. After all, among languages of economic importance to Australia are Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Italian and Spanish as well as Japanese. Australia's need for these languages is likely to increase after 1992.

This trend threatens to undermine the cultural significance of language learning and signals a move away from the emphasis on multiculturalism as foreign languages are regarded as an instrument for promoting the nation's (economic) interests (Taku 1996: 109).⁵⁹⁶

Der Wert jeder Sprache wurde mit dem Maß der Nützlichkeit für das nationale Interesse geschätzt.

According to Truckenbrodt (1997: 19), the concentration on the so-called priority languages has led to a ranking of the foreign languages (although this was not intended) as offering programmes in priority languages has financial advantages. For instance, in 1992 schools were given AUS\$ 300 for each Year 12 student in one of the priority languages (Clyne 1992: 202). Most states have attempted to emphasise Asian and European languages relatively equally. In WA, however, one initiative explicitly aimed to have 60 percent of all school pupils learning an Asian language and 40 percent a European language by the year 2000. Booth-Whiting (1993: viii) found that the marginalisation of German and other European languages due to political, economic and media pressure has in WA led to a decline of over 40 percent in the total numbers learning German between 1987 and 1993 as compared with an 81 percent rise in the numbers learning Japanese. This trend has, in some cases, resulted in institutions giving Asian languages preferential treatment without having the necessary staff and resources (Truckenbrodt 1997: 19-20).

Policies and decisions regarding languages in education are dependant on state or territory initiatives as these have control over education matters. By 1993 the adaptation and implementation of the policies developed at the federal level had essentially been completed

⁵⁹⁴ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 33; Booth-Whiting 1993: 54-58, 62-63, 77-81.

⁵⁹⁵ Cf. Clyne 1992: 201-202; Booth-Whiting 1993: 261-268.

⁵⁹⁶ Cf. Mau 1983: 90; DEET 1991a: 1; Clyne 1991c: 15-18, 1997: 128-130; Ozolins 1993: 254-261; Eggington 1994: 141-142; Djité 1994: 25; Truckenbrodt 1997: 18-19.

by the states and territories (Clyne 1991c: 14-15; Djité 1994: 29-48).⁵⁹⁷ Appendix Four summarises the language planning and policy initiatives introduced by the Australian states and territories in the 1990s. There are, of course, differences between the languages and other aspects emphasised in the various states and territories, depending in part on the overall political direction, the geographical situation and the ethnolinguistic composition of the particular state. The NT and WA, for example, are much closer to Indonesia than to Sydney or Melbourne, Queensland is very dependant on Japanese tourism, Victoria has a strong Greek and Italian population and SA has a high proportion of descendants of German-speaking immigrants (Clyne 1992: 202).

Victoria has (as one of the states with large and diverse migrant communities⁵⁹⁸) traditionally been active in the recognition and provision of LOTE in schools and universities. In 1988 alone four major policy documents relating to or including language issues were introduced: *A Higher Education Plan for Victoria 1989-91* (which acknowledged, amongst other things, the shortage of language teachers), *The LOTE Framework P-10* (which provided general guidelines for the planning, developing and reviewing of curriculum content and programmes), *Years 7-10 Guidelines Project* and *The VCE LOTE Study Design* (which provided a foundation for language courses in the final years of schooling) (Peddie 1991c: 32-33, 36-47; Djité 1994: 31-33).⁵⁹⁹ In 1989 the *Victoria Languages Action Plan* was published (Lo Bianco 1989) and in 1993 the *LOTE Strategy Plan*, which requires schools to provide language programmes for at least 25 percent of Years 11 to 12 students by the year 2000, was introduced. The strategy aims to ensure that eight languages are offered in mainstream schools, namely Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek and Vietnamese. It also aims to develop languages such as Arabic, Korean, Russian, Spanish and Thai in either mainstream schools or in the Victorian School of Languages⁶⁰⁰ and after-hours ethnic schools. Since then other reports and documents, such as the *Victorian Certificate of Education Study Design for German* (1994) and the *Curriculum and Standards Framework LOTE* (1995), have been introduced (Kretzenbacher 1998: 1).

According to Education Victoria (1999), Australia's domestic and international language needs require a high level of proficiency in a range of languages. The rationale for the teaching and learning of languages in schools is that:⁶⁰¹

- The learning of two or more languages is regarded as beneficial to individuals for various reasons, including "cognitive development, personal enrichment and vocational purposes, the effective promotion of Australia's interests

⁵⁹⁷ Cf. Ozolins 1985: 297-298; Lo Bianco 1987: 204-269; Clyne 1991e: 224-226, 232-239, 1992: 202-203; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: ii, 65-67; Booth-Whiting 1993: 34, 40-81, 199-200.

⁵⁹⁸ Cf. Peddie 1991c: 27-28; Petersen 1993: 45-46.

⁵⁹⁹ Cf. Peddie 1989, 1993; Truckenbrodt 1997: 20-21.

⁶⁰⁰ This is a state government education agency that provides students in government schools and some independent schools with the opportunity to study (by distance education or in Saturday classes) any of the forty-one languages offered up to Year 12 level if their own school does not offer the language (Petersen 1993: 57; Kretzenbacher 1998: 16).

⁶⁰¹ Cf. Scarino *et al.* 1988: 1; Lo Bianco 1989: 77-81; Djité 1994: 93.

internationally, and the enrichment of communication within Australian families and communities”;

- LOTE is one of eight key learning areas and competencies identified for Australian schooling;
- Learning a LOTE may lead to greater employment options including tourism, trade and commerce, the hospitality industry, medicine, diplomacy, journalism and teaching;
- Learning another language gives children an insight into another culture and can lead to greater intercultural understanding (if these aspects are included); and
- “For students from language backgrounds other than English, the ability to maintain their first language leads to improved communication within families and to greater self-esteem among those students which, in turn, can produce educational benefits such as improved performance in schooling. [...Also] the ability to maintain their first language and thereby continue their learning in that language can be significant for their general educational achievement.”

Australia’s commitment to the teaching LOTE is supported by many organisations. In Victoria, for instance, the Victoria Department of Education (LOTE, ESL & Multicultural Education Department), the Catholic Education Office and the Association of Independent Schools of Victoria facilitate the annual LOTE awards for excellence in LOTE teaching and learning (established in 1998).⁶⁰² These awards are sponsored by a number of airline companies, the Chinese, French and German embassies, the *Goethe-Institut*, COASIT, the Italian Department of Foreign Affairs, the Greek Ministry of Education, foreign language departments at Australian universities, the Japan Foundation, the Australian Arabic Council, Kaslik University in Lebanon, Alliance Française, the Language Teachers’ Associations in Victoria, Cinemedia and the Victorian Multicultural Commission (Education Victoria 1999).

Djité (1994: 110-138) outlines in brief the development of the nine key LOTE at the primary and secondary levels. **Chinese** was first offered at the secondary level in 1961. Since the *NPL*’s introduction in 1987, student numbers enrolled in Chinese at the primary level have increased from circa 2300 to over 12 300 in 1991. At the secondary level the total number of students has increased from 11 375 in 1988 to 25 562 in 1991 (Djité 1994: 112-114). The history of **French** in formal education can be traced back to the 1850s. By 1902 French had become the most popular subject for the Senior Public Examination. The prominence of French in Australian schools was boosted when the teaching of German was banned during the two world wars. French has maintained a prominent position in language teaching and was the most popular LOTE in all states except the NT until the recent growth of the Asian languages. In 1991 a total of 142 953 primary and secondary students studied French, down from 168 300 in 1988 (Djité 1994: 115-117).

⁶⁰² Cf. <http://www.sofweb.vic.edu.au/lotte/awards.htm> (12 August 1999).

German has a long history as a community language and as a language of education in Australia. Although affected by the two world wars, the place of German in schools strengthened from the mid 1960s when it began to be recognised as an important international language and since then has maintained its position as a language widely offered and studied across all sectors of Australian education (Djite 1994: 118-121). The combined total of primary and secondary students enrolled in German indicates an overall increase from 96 295 students in 1988 to 108 527 in 1991, with (slight) increases in most states except NSW and Tasmania. This may be a direct reflection of most states and territories having increased the provision of German in primary schools, a pattern of growth, which could have long-term implications for secondary school German programmes as the increased numbers flow on into this sector. There were, however, significant drops in the number of students enrolled in German in the government school systems in NSW, Victoria, Queensland, Tasmania, the NT and the Australian Capital Territory (ACT), mainly at the secondary level. For example, the number of Year 12 candidates studying German in 1991 totalled 2350, down from 3269 in 1988 (Djite 1994: 119).

There are a variety of **Greek** programmes in Australian schools and kindergartens including bilingual, immersion, partial immersion, maintenance and second language programmes (Djité 1994: 121-124). There were a total of 20 159 primary and secondary students enrolled in Modern Greek in state schools in 1988 and 22 554 in 1992. Ethnic schools play a vital part in the teaching of Modern Greek with an estimated 22 000 students enrolled at the more than 400 after-hours schools run by the Greek community nationwide in 1992. Distance education providers and the NSW Saturday School of Community Languages also offer Greek.

Italian is the second most widespread language (after English) in the Australian education system. In mainstream primary and secondary schools there were circa 243 000 students studying Italian in 1988 and circa 272 000 in 1991. 73 percent of these were learning the language at the primary level. Although well represented at the secondary level with circa 73 000 students, the flow-on effect that could be expected given the large numbers learning the language at primary level is not occurring. So-called insertion classes, that is, language classes timetabled within normal school hours and initiated by COASIT in 1981, play a major part in the provision of Italian at primary level (Djité 1994: 127-132).

Arabic, a language with a recent history of migration, was taught in the early 1990s at a number of primary and secondary schools, including mainstream, ethnic and government after-hours schools, in NSW. In Victoria, Arabic was taught to circa 2000 students at eight government schools, ten Catholic schools, three independent schools and the Victorian School of Languages (Djité 1994: 110-112).

While the Australian government initiated the teaching of *Indonesian/Malay* in the 1950s, only a few students studied the language in secondary schools in Victoria and SA (Djité 1994: 124-127). In 1988, however, almost 25 000 students were enrolled at the primary and secondary levels and the language had become the fifth most widely studied language in secondary schools after French, German, Italian and Japanese, and the sixth most studied in primary schools after Italian, German, French, Modern Greek and Japanese. By 1991 there were more than 45 400 students of the language.

Japanese has a long history in Australia having been introduced into the education system in 1917 at the University of Sydney. It was also offered at a number of secondary schools before WWII, but it was not until the mid 1960s that Japanese was (re)introduced at a number of Australian schools. Since then the continuing development of “Australian-Japanese relations [...] and the strategic importance of the powerful economy of this country to Australia have led to a significant increase in interest in the study of the Japanese language.” (Djité 1994: 132) Since 1988 Japanese has attained the status of a major LOTE at all levels. An estimated 95 000 students were studying Japanese at the primary and secondary levels in 1992.⁶⁰³ Japanese is also offered at private language schools and Japanese Saturday Schools (Djité 1994: 132-135).

According to Djité (1994: 135-137), the history of *Spanish* language teaching in Australia dates back to 1957 when it was first introduced in Victoria as part of an adult education programme. There were circa 5250 students in 1988 and by 1992 the number of students taking Spanish had increased to nearly 10 000. There has been a parallel increase in the number of schools and institutions offering Spanish language programmes in all states except WA.

With the exception of French, the statistics of all other languages in Djité’s study show a steady if not an upward trend at primary and secondary levels from 1988 to 1991 (Djité 1994: 138). While this trend is consistent and expected to continue (particularly for the Asian languages), a number of the other LOTE, such as German and Italian, are threatened by the high attrition rates at the Year 12 level. This is a worrying trend for the continued study of these languages at the tertiary level. Major languages vary according to the state and the level of education as well as the school system. For instance, Modern Greek has the highest enrolments in Year 12 in Victoria, while Italian is the language most widely learnt in Victorian primary schools and Catholic schools throughout the country. French remains the most widely taught LOTE in state secondary schools in most states. However, German is the major second language in SA schools and Indonesian in most NT schools (Clyne 1991e: 123).

⁶⁰³ Other estimates put this figure at 112 055 students (Djité 1994: 132).

Booth-Whiting (1993: 113-185) found there had been a distinctive increase in the learning of Japanese and other Asian languages between 1987 and 1992, particularly in government schools where Japanese gained by 97 percent overall throughout Australia and Asian languages overall increased by 49 percent. In Victoria, for instance, there was a 313 percent increase in the learning of Japanese with 8662 students learning the language in 1992 as compared with 1385 in 1987. German also increased by 23 percent in government schools in Victoria during this period, but declined in non-government schools (Booth-Whiting 1993: 143-149). German was down by 23 percent overall (in contrast to Djité and others' findings) and European languages by 19 percent overall.⁶⁰⁴ Even in SA, the state which traditionally had the strongest numbers in German and where the largest number of primary school students learnt German, the numbers learning German declined by ten percent between 1987 and 1992 (Booth-Whiting 1993: 150-153). These figures directly reflect the policy initiatives contained in the *NPL* and the *ALLP*.

Non-government schools continued to promote European languages as well as implementing the policy initiatives.⁶⁰⁵ This meant that the study of a European language was not replaced by an Asian language, but rather the Asian language was added to the teaching programme, so the resulting decline was not as large in these schools. German declined in these schools by seven percent throughout Australia and European languages overall by nine percent. The numbers learning Japanese in non-government schools increased by 40 percent and the Asian languages overall by 31 percent (Booth-Whiting 1993: 174-185).

According to Booth-Whiting's study (1993: 224-226), the possible reasons for the decline in German (and other European languages) include:

- The reorientation of economic relations towards the Asian-Pacific countries and the consequent increase in the learning of Japanese;
- The high profile Japanese has in the public arena and the resulting attitudes of parents, etc.;
- The increase in the number of subjects offered, which has marginalised language learning as a whole;
- The constant restructuring of the Ministries of Education and the curricula; and
- The lack of recognition given to LOTE by school directors.

The significant increase in the popularity of Japanese is due to the fact that after England's entry into the European Community in 1973, Australia began to regard itself as an Asian-Pacific nation and to give the Asian languages higher priority (compared to the European languages) in the education system (Taku 1996: 108). Woolcott (1997) believes that

⁶⁰⁴ Cf. Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 316-320, 328.

⁶⁰⁵ Cf. Petersen 1993: 74-75.

globalisation, the rise of the Asian economies and the reorientation towards the Asia-Pacific will continue to increase the need for Asian language and cultural studies.⁶⁰⁶

According to Djité (1994: 155), it is ironic that LOTE in Australia have gained in importance at a time when English is gaining importance as *the* international language. The introduction of federal and state level language policies has resulted in the dramatic expansion in the number of languages taught in Australian schools, particularly at primary schools,⁶⁰⁷ and universities. As a result 54 LOTE (including 14 Aboriginal languages) were offered at the primary and secondary levels and 26 at the tertiary level by the early 1990s. These developments have led to the multicultural and multilingual nature of Australian society being generally accepted and the language of immigrants receiving unprecedented support as compared with other English-speaking countries. As a result Australia has earned an international reputation as a leader in language policy development (Djité 1994: 49).⁶⁰⁸

Despite these advances and the increasing commitment to the teaching of LOTE, Djité (1994: i, 50-53, 139-146, 156) contends issues, such as the following, remain:⁶⁰⁹

- Many of the documents do not set out a clear plan of action to achieve the objectives. Constant monitoring and further development are required to ensure these are met;
- Language study is only afforded a marginal place in the school curriculum despite reforms in the early 1980s and 1990s and LOTE programmes (unlike other subjects in the curriculum) have to justify their existence. According to Rhie (1997d: 70), during the reform process(es), which also coincided with the Australian government(s) accepting and encouraging the multicultural and multilingual nature of Australian society, foreign language teaching and learning have lost further ground. This paradox is similar to the situation in Korea, where the government is promoting globalisation, while foreign language teaching is being neglected;⁶¹⁰
- Although the rate of growth in language study has been considerable at the primary school level in the past decade, it has not been uniform across languages and nationally. In absolute numbers and in view of the overall situation at the secondary and tertiary levels, the rate of growth has been relatively negligible;
- There is a lack of continuity or transition between primary, secondary and tertiary level LOTE programmes;

⁶⁰⁶ Cf. Averling 1998; Veit 1999: 252-254.

⁶⁰⁷ Cf. Booth-Whiting 1993: 255-256.

⁶⁰⁸ Cf. Clyne 1991a: 220-221, 1991c: 2, 18-20; Ammon 1991a: 492; Taku 1996: 107.

⁶⁰⁹ Cf. Ozolins 1985: 296-297; Australian Academy of the Humanities 1988: xix-xxi, 68-69; Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 296-309; DEET 1991: 72-73, 77-88; Clyne 1991c: 14-18, 1991e: 239; Kirwan 1992: 140-142; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 26-36, 113-114; Booth-Whiting 1993: 206-210, 256; Truckenbrodt 1997.

⁶¹⁰ Cf. Booth-Whiting 1993: 260; Petersen 1993: 53-55.

- There is a lack of materials and resources for most LOTE. Many of those available are not suitable for the diverse programmes being developed or for the Australian context;
- Adequately trained language teachers (particularly primary level LOTE teachers, teachers of languages such as Japanese, Modern Greek and Italian and teachers of language teaching methodologies at the tertiary level) are required to meet the objectives of the policies implemented. The training and language proficiency of a significant number of teachers are inadequate to deliver quality language programmes and require significant funding increases;⁶¹¹
- Students have limited opportunities to utilise the LOTE they are learning through in-country work, study and exchanges, for instance;
- Many students studying a second language at the secondary level do not intend to include a LOTE in their tertiary study; and
- The dismissive attitude of many business people in Australia towards the importance of language skills to Australia's export capabilities.⁶¹²

II.4.2.3 German in Australian Schools.

According to Clyne (1991b: 242-243), the fact that "German is both an international and an Australian community language means that it is well represented in education, at the secondary and tertiary levels and more recently in the primary schools."⁶¹³ Veit (1988: 18) contends that German has the edge over some languages in Australia given that it combines "the three most important categories of world language, trade language and community language".⁶¹⁴

As the sections on the Asian countries have shown a complex array of (historical, political, social, economic and demographic) factors impacts on the German programmes offered. In China, for instance, political factors play a significant role, while in Japan and Korea historical factors have impacted on the development of German. In Australia the existence of German-speaking communities in different states is an important factor in the development and support of languages programmes, such as SA where German is a heritage language as compared with the NT where German is not a priority language (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 16). German is the third most frequently taught language in Victoria given the historical links, migration figures and the promotion of LOTE in Victoria in recent decades (Kretzenbacher 1998: 2-3). The support of LOTE in general in Queensland is strong with the State Education Department allocating AUS\$ 67 million to be spent on language programmes during the decade from 1993 onwards. German is one of the top

⁶¹¹ Cf. Lo Bianco 1989: 56-59; Clyne 1982a: 131, 1991e: 123-124; Booth-Whiting 1993: 193-195, 256; Petersen 1993: 62.

⁶¹² Cf. Ingram 1986: 6-7, 23; Lo Bianco 1988; Stanley *et al.* 1990.

⁶¹³ Cf. Mau 1983: 120-122; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: v.

⁶¹⁴ Cf. Mau 1983: 69-73, 79-81; Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 44-48; Ammon 1991d: 58-59, 1991b: 494-495; Clyne 1992: 202; Djité 1994: 118-119.

three languages there (Booth-Whiting 1993: 127-133). Another such factor is the lobby groups that rally behind the language and support its cause.

In 1988 the total number of school pupils learning German was estimated to be 120 000, 102 500 at the secondary level and 17 500 at the primary level. In 1990 there were 2925 students of German at the Year 12 level and this constituted 13.94 percent of all language students at that level (Ammon 1991a: 492-493; DEET 1991: 69). In 1991 there were an estimated 100 000 students learning German, 1150 secondary teachers, 200 primary teachers, 50 Saturday School teachers and circa 100 Adult Education teachers (Booth-Whiting 1993: 242). Traditionally German was the second foreign language behind French, but by the late 1980s German was the fourth most studied language behind Japanese and Italian and French. German continues to be threatened by the increasing popularity of Japanese and the trend towards vocationally oriented subjects.⁶¹⁵

In the primary sector German has experienced strong growth (particularly in SA, Queensland, Victoria and Australian Capital Territory (ACT)) as a direct result of the policy initiatives to increase both the range of languages offered and the number of students at the primary level. SA has the highest percentage of primary (and secondary schools) teaching German in Australia, a successful bilingual programme in German and in 1989 began developing Australia's first curriculum for primary level German (Booth-Whiting 1993: 241). Some states (particularly Victoria, SA and NSW where larger numbers of primary schools offer German) offer a variety of entry levels from the first year of school to the upper primary classes. The number of teaching hours per week also varies from 30 minutes to five hours and all points of the spectrum in between. Fernandez *et al.* (1993b: 27) contend that because of:⁶¹⁶

the devolution of decision making to schools and the almost complete absence of centralised guidelines, the range of approaches to language programming is vast, as is the diversity of backgrounds, experience and language proficiency of many of the teachers implementing these.

As in Korea, this lack of uniformity and commonality has led to problems of transition to post primary level German.

German is also well represented in the (government and independent) secondary schools of these states because of the correlation between the areas in which there were a large number of German-speaking settlers and those states in which the language has a strong position in schools (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 16-17). In Queensland, for example, the rapid expansion of Japanese programmes had to be halted due to a lack of teachers, so many schools have opted in the meantime for German given its historical links with Queensland and its increasing economic position in Europe.

⁶¹⁵ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 3, 5-18; Petersen 1993: 53-55.

⁶¹⁶ Cf. Petersen 1993: 47-48; Tisdell 1999b: 468, 470.

At secondary level there is also a great variety of courses offered from the 'smorgasboard' type programme where students study several languages for short periods in one year, to partial immersion programmes and every variation in between.⁶¹⁷ Schools are generally free to decide the time allocated for German programmes, the levels at which these will be offered and whether these are offered as compulsory or elective subjects. Language study is often compulsory for the first year(s) of secondary schooling, after which it is offered as an elective. If students do study a foreign language to Year 12 level they will have studied it for at least two years (Deichsel 1989: 47-48; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 32-33).

In addition to the programmes in German offered by the mainstream education system, there are a number of other providers of German at the primary and secondary levels, including the correspondence schools in each state. The Victorian Correspondence School, for instance, offers German from Years 9 to 12 and had 13 staff and almost 500 pupils in 1993, making it one of the largest departments in the school. One fifth of all students who sit the German matriculation examination in Victoria learn the language by correspondence, an indication of the current gaps in the secondary school offerings (Petersen 1993: 52, 55-56).⁶¹⁸

The German School Johannes Gutenberg in Sydney teaches a curriculum based on the German school system, but includes components of the NSW system.⁶¹⁹ Lessons are taught in German, but English is taught from Year 1 in accordance with the NSW curriculum. French is offered from Year 7. Year 10 students sit the German examinations supervised by German authorities. It is planned that after gaining "accreditation as an "Approved German Language School Abroad" the German School will proceed to Year 13 offering students the choice of completing their education by sitting the "Abitur".⁶²⁰

German Schools (sometimes called Lutheran schools, Saturday schools or Ethnic schools) have provided full-day school programmes, bilingual programmes, one-day per week, after school or Saturday programmes, insertion classes and community language programmes for circa 160 years. Petersen (1993: 52-53) contends that ethnic schools were established because of lack of opportunities at mainstream schools to learn community languages and have been one of the most important educational institutions for the maintenance of community languages at the primary and secondary levels in Australia for over 100 years.⁶²¹ The changes in government policy towards multiculturalism and the *NPL* gave these schools, now often called community language schools, recognition. The overall number of these schools and the support for them has grown to circa 1200 in 1981 with 62 000 pupils

⁶¹⁷ Cf. Ammon 1991d: 60.

⁶¹⁸ Cf. Mau 1983: 32, 87-90; Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 306-307.

⁶¹⁹ Cf. Booth-Whiting 1993: 240; Fink 1995 35; Stilz 1995: 160-161.

⁶²⁰ Cf. <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/saschool.htm> (23 May 2001).

⁶²¹ Cf. Mau 1983: 31; Tisdell 1999b: 468-470.

learning 57 different languages.⁶²² These schools have developed models for the teaching of foreign languages in schools, such as teaching a language from an early age, using teachers who are (near) native speakers of the language, developing a holistic setting as opposed to an academic setting and linking the learning of a language with cultural activities. The ethnic schools also developed programmes for insertion classes with government support. These involve itinerant, fully qualified LOTE teachers visiting schools two to three times a week to teach the target language for thirty minutes at a time.

Forty-two of these schools with a combined enrolment of circa 2500 students now provide tuition in German on Saturday mornings, at week-nights, after school and in the form of insertion classes during school time to students of all levels nationwide (Djité 1994: 120-121; Tisdell 1995: 140, 1999b: 470-476).⁶²³ The German Saturday Schools remain popular given the renewed interest in LOTE and for those immigrants who hope to return to Germany some day and want their children to be able to speak the language, for those where no German is available at the mainstream schools and for those who want their children to excel and see these schools as giving extra exposure to the language in an authentic setting (Tisdell 149-151). In the 1980s and early 1990s these schools diversified their activities further into offering language classes for adults of non German background, conversation classes for secondary students from Years 7 to 12 and courses in languages for matriculation purposes that are not offered in mainstream secondary schools (Tisdell 1995: 140, 145-149).

German has always been at the forefront of efforts to develop innovative and new programmes, such as the introduction of bilingual and content-based programmes, including those at Bayswater South Primary School in Victoria and at Happy Valley in SA (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 59; Tisdell 1995: 147-148).⁶²⁴ Bayswater South Primary School bilingual programme (established in 1981) is one initiative aimed at promoting the learning of German. According to Lo Bianco (1989: 21-22):⁶²⁵

the bilingual program does not take time away from other curriculum areas as German is an integral part of the school program and is taught in subject areas across the school curriculum.

Students can join this programme at all levels and can opt not to continue at the end of each year. The programme has been developed in liaison with teachers and subject specialists. At the junior school level language learning in each subject is integrated with skills acquisition for five hours per week. At the middle and upper levels a thematic approach is used. Other features of the programme include: a penpal programme, involvement of the Templar Home for Aged in language activities, the development of teaching videos and a

⁶²² Cf. Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 307-309.

⁶²³ Cf. Clyne 1974: 132, 1981: 41-45, 1991e: 124-129; Apelt 1975: 24; Mau 1983: 77-79; Petersen 1993: 9-10.

⁶²⁴ Cf. Mau 1983: 64-69; Fernandez 1992; Booth-Whiting 1993: 241; Tisdell 1999b: 470, 476-478.

⁶²⁵ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 39-61; Petersen 1993: 48-52.

reading programme for the upper levels.⁶²⁶ Bayswater High School now also offers a bilingual programme in German.

In Australia there are German (or Modern Languages) Teachers' Associations and networks, such as the Modern Language Teachers Association ACT Inc. (MLTA ACT), the Language Teachers Association of Northern Territories (LTA NT), and the South Australian German Teachers' Association (SAGTA), in at least six states (<http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/teacher.htm> (23 May 2001)).⁶²⁷ Both Victoria and SA have very active teacher associations that promote and support the teaching of German, compared to NSW where, despite having the largest number of German-speaking people in Australia, the language has not succeeded in maintaining as high a profile as in Victoria and SA (and Queensland). This would appear to be due partially to the lack of a coherent teacher association and the competition from the Asian languages in that state (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 16-17; Kretzenbacher 1998: 3). The parent body of these language teacher associations is the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations Inc. (AFMLTA). Its role is to promote language learning in Australia. The AFMLTA also publishes the *Babel* journal three times a year. This contains articles and reviews on the teaching and learning of LOTE at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. There are also a relatively large number of publishers of resources and materials for teachers and students of German in Australia.⁶²⁸

Professional support, training and development for teachers of German is provided in each state by a German advisor in conjunction with the Department of Education. The *Goethe-Institut* also provides in-service training as do the Associations of German Teachers. Generally both linguistic and methodological skills catered for in the provision of in service training (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 45).⁶²⁹

II.4.3 The Role of Foreign Languages in the Tertiary Sector.

II.4.3.1 Changes and reforms in the tertiary sector since 1945 and the effect on foreign language teaching and learning.

Since 1945 there has been a marked expansion and diversification of the tertiary sector in Australia as in China, Japan and Korea, including the establishment of new and diverse forms of tertiary institutions, such as the Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE). At the end of WWII there were six universities in Australia, all of which had been established before WWI, with circa 26 000 students. Rapid increases in enrolments occurred in all disciplines, including foreign languages, from the late 1950s through to the late 1970s. By 1972 there were 128 000 students at fifteen universities and postgraduate enrolments had increased from circa 680 in 1952 to circa 13 170 in 1972. These increases were due to the higher birth

⁶²⁶ Cf. Ozolins 1993: 185.

⁶²⁷ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 36.

⁶²⁸ Cf. Mau 1983: 104-108; Truckenbrodt 1997: 20-21; <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/resource.htm> (23 May 2001).

⁶²⁹ Cf. Apelt 1975: 25.

rates, planned immigration and changes in government education policies. New teaching staff were required for the newly established institutions, and many came from Central Europe, the UK and the US (Australian Universities Commission 1972: 1, 8-10, 55-56; Veit 1984: 5, 7; Keeves 1987b: 147-150).⁶³⁰

Until the 1950s Australian universities were predominantly concerned with teaching.⁶³¹ Individual staff pursued their own academic research and published scholarly works, but there was no commitment within universities to the development of postgraduate schools or to the provision of the funds required to facilitate staff research. The development of (post)graduate work was largely a result of the expansion of the tertiary sector and was directed at training graduates to become university teachers. In the Sciences, for instance, it became customary for students to undertake their higher degree work at Australian universities as opposed to in the UK or US as had been traditional (Australian Universities Commission 1972: 34-35).

Most universities are state universities in Australia⁶³² and most are based on the English and Scottish model with strictly separated faculties and departments. There has, however, been some American influence in recent years and through the European staff members in the German departments, for instance, a degree of European influence.⁶³³ The most recently established institutions have developed modern forms of organisation facilitating interdisciplinary teaching and research. A number of the more traditional universities have attempted to achieve the same effect by bringing together academics interested in interdisciplinary and comparative work in centres, such as the Centre of Migrant Studies and the Centre of General and Comparative Literature at Monash, or by developing special courses in German history within the German department at the University of New South Wales (Veit 1984: 6-7).

To gain entrance to a university, secondary school students must have their HSC and in some states, such as Victoria, gain a Tertiary Education Rank (TER), which is calculated from the Year 12 examination results and other factors by a complicated formula and expressed as a percentage. At some of the more prestigious Victorian universities Medicine and Law faculties will only admit those students with a very high TER (Kretzenbacher 1998:16). In other states, such as WA, students are required to sit the Tertiary Entrance Examination (TEE) in order to gain a Tertiary Entrance Score (TES) if they wish to study at one of the four universities in the state. The TES also includes the student's school assessment mark and score from the Australian Scholastic Aptitude Test. Students often

⁶³⁰ Cf. Apelt 1975: 23; Schulz 1976: 106; Cohen & Joy 1978: 38-39; Beswick 1987: 205-206; *How do you measure...* 1996.

⁶³¹ Cf. Keeves 1987b: 147-150.

⁶³² There have been a number of attempts at establishing privately or business-funded tertiary institutions during recent years. However, the majority have not succeeded given the competitive educational environment in Australia.

⁶³³ Cf. Wykes 1966: 40; Schulz 1976: 106.

choose subjects that will allow them to gain a good TES rather than considering a range of subjects leading to a well-rounded education. German is one of the subjects offered for the TES as are other languages including Indonesian, Japanese, Chinese, French and Latin. The first three of these are offered as a second language and for native speakers (Booth-Whiting 1993: 37, 217-220).

The regulatory framework of undergraduate programme varies slightly between universities, however, normally the B.A. or Pass degree is awarded within the Arts Faculty after three years study. Students can opt to undertake additional courses in their second and third years and a further year of study to obtain a Bachelors with Honours degree. This can be followed by the two-year Master of Arts (by coursework and/or thesis) and the two or three year PhD. At some universities students can begin the PhD programme directly after the B.A. (Hons). Students who wish to become secondary school teachers normally complete a one-year Diploma of Education after their B.A.

Academic programmes or curricula are regulated by prescribed teaching and examination regulations. In the traditional system students normally take four subjects in first year, three in second year, two or three in third year and one or two of these are major subjects. Fourth year students concentrate on the major subject(s). Combinations with other subjects leading to Combined or Double Honours are also possible. The advantage of this system is that students have prior knowledge of the basic programme of study so can plan their programme of study to cater for their interests or career plans. Detailed curricula are published for individual courses by the departments. German departments at Australian universities are known for their tutorial system or seminar-style teaching whereby students are taught in small groups. Formal lectures are rarely used and then only for general surveys (Schulz 1976: 109; Veit 1984: 7).⁶³⁴

At the end of WWII French and German were the only languages widely taught in universities, although Russian was also taught in Queensland and later in Melbourne, Dutch was offered in several universities, Italian at Sydney and Asian languages were beginning to be introduced at the University College in Canberra (*Australian Universities Commission* 1972: 98; Ozolins 1993: 16). By 1964 circa 30 percent of the total enrolment in the Faculties of Arts studied at least one foreign language. In addition, circa 140 students in the Faculties of Law, Commerce, Economics or Accountancy and 580 in the Faculties of Science were studying a foreign language. French, German and Latin were the most popular languages. French was taught in every university and to more than 3000 students in total in 1964. German was the second most popular language with circa 1800 students. Latin was the third most popular language with 960 university students (as compared with the situation at

⁶³⁴ Cf. Deichsel 1989: 65.

the secondary level where it was the second most popular language) (Wykes 1966: iii, 13-20, 25-30; Wykes and King 1968: 76-77).

Diversification of the language programmes offered at tertiary level was occurring during the mid to late 1960s. For instance, Italian was offered at Sydney, Melbourne and WA; Greek at all universities except NSW, Indonesian at Sydney, Melbourne, Monash and ANU; Russian at ANU, Melbourne, Monash and Queensland. Chinese could be studied at ANU, Sydney and Melbourne; Hebrew at Melbourne and Sydney; Dutch at Melbourne, Japanese at Sydney and ANU and Swedish, Arabic and Syriac at Melbourne and Sydney. The number of students studying these languages ranged from only very few learning Swedish to 258 students learning Italian (Wykes 1966: 30-32; Wykes and King 1968: 76-77).

Despite a far greater range of foreign language programmes at the tertiary level as compared with the secondary level, there was a disproportionately small number of students taking languages other than the most popular three (Wykes and King 1968: 76-77).⁶³⁵ Other issues facing the foreign language disciplines at the time included the need for (Wykes 1966: 36-42, 45-48, 51; Wykes and King 1968: 82-85):

- The rationalisation of foreign language resources (particularly for the less popular languages) within the larger centres;
- The establishment of elementary courses particularly in those languages not offered in schools;
- The development of a variety of courses, including 'service' courses, at all levels in the languages programmes offered;
- The training of teachers of foreign languages in specialist courses; and
- The teaching and research into linguistics and phonetics.

The decline in numbers of secondary school students taking foreign languages, particularly Latin and French, due to the abolition of the foreign languages requirement was reflected in the universities where there was a decline in the number of foreign language students as a percentage of all arts students. The language departments were usually relatively small with an average of 65 Equivalent Full-time Students (EFTS) in 1970 and so found it difficult to provide adequate courses with an average full-time staff of less than four. Significant library resources were also required for foreign languages, so the provision of foreign languages in light of such small enrolments was expensive (*Australian Universities Commission* 1972: 96). The Universities Commission's report, therefore, suggested cooperation between the universities in the larger centres to avoid duplication of resources. The teaching of Asian languages was only relatively new in Australian universities with circa 500 EFTS enrolled in Asian languages in the 1970s. This constituted circa 13 percent of all foreign language enrolments and 1.7 percent of all Arts enrolments. The report recommended that Australian

⁶³⁵ Cf. Mau 1983: 91-95.

universities should become major centres of Asian Studies (particularly in Japanese, Indonesian and Malay) at both the undergraduate and postgraduate level and that these three languages be taught in every major city in Australia (*Australian Universities Commission* 1972: 98).

The decline in the number of secondary school students studying a foreign language continued into the 1980s. Whereas over 44 percent of Australian students completed the HSC with a second language in 1967, that figure had dropped to a national average of about ten percent by 1986. Lo Bianco (1990: 75) describes this as acute given that:

Australia as an exporting nation must select and create niches in the economies of its trading partners and target goods at these. Inevitably this would require a much more sophisticated knowledge of these societies, and linguistic and cultural competence beyond present levels. Such instrumental reasons strengthen traditional 'cultural enrichment' arguments for lamenting such a serious decline in second language learning.

By 1982 some thirty languages were taught at universities, although only 7 percent of Australian undergraduate students were enrolled in language courses and three languages, French, German and Italian, attracted almost 60 percent of students. Another 23 percent studied Japanese, Indonesian, Chinese and Modern Greek so the numbers studying these languages had increased despite the continued dominance of programmes in French, German, and the increasing popularity of Italian. University language programmes generally emphasised reading and writing skills and the study of literature as opposed to the development of oral fluency and applied uses of languages.⁶³⁶ Some universities, however, had introduced courses in community languages such as Vietnamese and Slavic languages (Lo Bianco 1987: 30-31, 1990: 75).⁶³⁷ Within the TAFE sector there had been an increase in the number of languages offered, particularly community and Aboriginal languages and in the number of vocational courses, including the study of community languages and German or Japanese for tourism or business.

During the 1980s and 1990s the tertiary sector in Australia underwent reforms, which have impacted on the teaching and learning of foreign languages, including German. These included changes imposed by the Commonwealth government that made it essential for Australian universities to (Sharpham 1996):⁶³⁸

bring more 'real-world' commercial expertise to financial management. The move from elite to mass university education is consumer-driven and mass higher education cannot be funded totally, or even in large part, by the taxpayer. [...We must] operate effectively in a world growing more and more competitive. We are in the market place, we deal with clients and consumers, we advertise, promote and polish our product and its brand name.

⁶³⁶ Cf. Cohen & Joy 1978: 39-40.

⁶³⁷ Cf. Hawley 1981.

⁶³⁸ Cf. Veit 1988: 15-16, 22-23, 31-33; Petersen 1993: 61.

Part of the reforms and restructuring has given the universities more autonomy in curriculum matters (Juddery 1997b). Juddery suggests these reforms have given the sector both the need and the opportunity to rethink the (undergraduate) curriculum because mass higher education has resulted in a higher number of students who prefer vocational courses or programmes. The (sometimes acrimonious) debate about 'economic rationalisation' has yet to result in a comprehensive analysis of ways in which the undergraduate programmes might be reformed and restructured to enable students to face the demands and challenges of the employment market today.

Given the cuts in government funding, Australian universities have openly competed for overseas fee-paying students since the mid 1980s, particularly in Asia.⁶³⁹ These students now form a significant component of the universities' budgets and planning processes and much of the growth in the sector during the past two decades has been due to these students, industry funded initiatives and the export of educational services. In addition, fees for domestic students were introduced and, according to some sources, now constitute up to 25 percent of actual costs (Beswick 1987: 210; Sharpham 1996).⁶⁴⁰

Key words in the reform process have been rationalisation and efficiency. The universities are no longer able to be "all things to all consumers", so have started to focus on key strategic programmes through which they can establish or maintain a national or international leadership position and attract a significant proportion of the funding required (Sharpham 1996). Other programmes have been reduced to a minimum or closed down. In addition, universities have become more diverse in terms of their funding structures and programmes offered because of the competitive environment (Sharpham 1996).

According to the OECD's *Thematic Review of the First Years of Tertiary Education: Australia*, the tertiary education sector had coped reasonably well with the comprehensive restructuring during the past decade.⁶⁴¹ However, the review also found that the financial restraints on universities have made it hard to adapt and continue to adapt. Since 1986 there has been a marked decline in resources for undergraduate teaching programmes. Because of this the report suggests that Australian universities adopt other ways of funding as opposed to the EFTSU method.⁶⁴²

⁶³⁹ Cf. Australian Academy of the Humanities 1988: xix-xxi.

⁶⁴⁰ Cf. *How do you measure...* 1996; *Watt's program for reform* 1997.

⁶⁴¹ Cf. DEET 1991: 1; Juddery 1997a; *Watt's program for reform* 1997.

⁶⁴² As "Australian university uses a different credit point system for subjects, a common, funding-based, equivalence system has been devised to provide corresponding information for courses across all higher education institutions. Each EFTSU [Equivalent Full Time Student Unit] represents the equivalent of one student studying a language [or another subject] full time for one year. While EFTSUs quantify total load, they do not indicate how many students are studying a language, i.e., 10 EFTSUs might represent 80 first year students studying a language for a quarter of their time for one semester or 20 third year students studying a language for half their time for a year." (Djité 1994: 111) One EFTSU equals approximately three students (Kretzenbacher 1998: 4).

At the tertiary level the patterns of enrolment, staffing arrangements and structure of the curriculum have all changed during the past two decades. There has been a trend towards reducing the number of Humanities programmes offered as compared with the number of vocational or professional programmes. The traditional academic subjects have tended to attract smaller numbers of students and are, therefore, becoming a diminishing proportion as overall enrolment numbers increase (Donaldson 1990; *Fooling with the classics* 1996; Juddery 1997b).⁶⁴³

This trend has added to the decline in those studying a LOTE at the tertiary level. In 1990 fewer than one percent of tertiary students completed at least one language unit. This constituted 7288 EFTSU, a drastic decline from the 1980 figure of 10 222, particularly given that there were fewer tertiary students overall in 1980 (DEET 1991: 70-71). Of the 30 modern languages taught in 1990, students of French (1295 EFTSU) and Japanese (1998 EFTSU) constituted 45 percent of all language students. Italian and German are the third and fourth most commonly studied languages with 885 EFTSU and 764 EFTSU respectively. Chinese, Spanish and Bahasa Indonesia follow with 587, 428 and 408 EFTSU respectively. This effectively means the seven most popular languages are studied by 87.3 percent of language students.

Parallel to increases at the secondary level, the number of tertiary institutions offering **Chinese** has increased from 13 in 1988 to 23 with a total of 2138 students by 1992 (Djité 1994: 112-114). **Indonesian/Malay** was first offered at three universities in the 1950s. However, by 1988 this was the sixth most studied language at the tertiary level with a total of 951 students. By 1992 twenty-two institutions offered courses in Indonesian/Malay and the number of students enrolled had increased by 151.2 percent! (Djité 1994: 118-120)

The teaching of **Japanese** at the tertiary level has increased even more dramatically than at the primary and secondary levels since 1988. In 1992 courses in Japanese were offered at 30 of the 36 tertiary institutions in Australia and by 1996 this had risen to 39 of the 43 universities (with Chinese being taught at 29 and Indonesian at 25) throughout Australia (Averling 1988: 33). By 1991 Japanese was the most widely studied LOTE in Australian higher education with circa 2000 EFTSU at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels (Ammon 1991a: 493; Djité 1994: 132-135). However, there has been a decrease in student numbers between the third and fourth or Honours year. There are few Honours or postgraduate programmes in Japanese with only 62 Honours students in 1992 at nine institutions.

⁶⁴³ Cf. Schulz 1976: 110-111; Cohen & Joy 1978; Braunert 1993: 41; Horst 1998: 666; Schmidt 1998: 470; Veit 1999: 251-252.

Between 1981 and 1990, the number of students enrolled in **French** at tertiary institutions dropped significantly to 1295 EFTSU due partly to changes in the design of Arts degree in most faculties and to the growing interest in Asian languages. However, since then enrolments have stabilised due to the introduction of innovative language programmes such as French for business purposes or combined degrees with a structured LOTE component (Djité 1994: 115-117).

Modern Greek and Italian, however, are experiencing low enrolments and Arabic and Spanish are still under represented at this level, possibly due to the more recent introduction of the latter at this level. In 1992 **Modern Greek** was amongst the seven languages most widely taught, although it remained under represented with only 1150 students enrolled at the undergraduate level and a total of 67 students enrolled in Honours and postgraduate studies (Djité 1994: 121-124). In 1994 there were 25 universities offering **Italian** at the undergraduate level. Six of these, however, offer only partial undergraduate programmes and only one in three universities offers a programme in Italian to PhD level, with very few students enrolled where these are offered (Djité 1994: 127-132).

There were about 300 students enrolled in **Arabic** courses at the tertiary level in 1990 at seven tertiary institutions in Victoria, NSW, ACT and SA (Djité 1994: 110-112). In 1988 the numbers of students completing at least one unit of **Spanish** was 882. In 1990 Spanish was offered at 13 tertiary institutions and ranked as the sixth most popular language at this level with circa 1284 students. Only a very few offered vocationally oriented courses (Djité 1994: 135-137).

Programmes in these languages are also offered by TAFE, university Institutes of Languages, the *Alliances Française*, distance education providers, adult education providers, ethnic schools and in Continuing Education programmes.

While the government maintains it aims to increase the overall number of students studying languages, but not at the expense of any particular (group of) languages, the latter appears to be happening. Evidence of this is the significant increase in Japanese enrolments at the tertiary level up from 18.9 percent of enrolled language students in 1988 to 27.4 percent in 1990. French has declined from 21 percent in 1988 to 17.8 percent in 1990 and German has decreased from 16 percent in 1988 to 10.5 percent in 1990. Italian also decreased, while Chinese, Thai, Korean, Spanish and Modern Greek have each increased their share of the language students in percentage terms.

The attrition rate in the number of tertiary students enrolled in LOTE, particularly at the graduate and postgraduate level, is a crucial issue for the disciplines, given that the number

of students enrolled at these levels is small (DEET 1991: 70-71; Djité 1994: 139).⁶⁴⁴ Factors that might explain the decline in the number of students learning LOTE include the removal of these languages from the core curriculum in schools and from the requirements for entry into higher education. Some have called for the reintroduction of a compulsory element of language and cultural studies.⁶⁴⁵ Others call for flexible entry points to tertiary courses in all subjects, the integration of language study into a wide variety of study programmes, such as double degree programmes, and the award of bonus points for language study for entry to tertiary institutions or particular faculties (as in Victoria). Others contend that while some rationalisation of the language courses offered may be required nationally, languages should be available in each university to ensure that the benefits of language learning are not confined to those attending the larger, older institutions or to those who can afford the extra expense of living away from home (Corkhill and Lee 1999). Sufficient funding is required to provide for adequate exchange programmes, library facilities and other resources.

II.4.3.2 Languages in the competitive context: the example of German.

Similar to China, Japan and Korea, foreign languages in Australia have increasingly found themselves in a competitive environment due to factors such as the diversification of the LOTE programmes offered, the trend towards the Asian-Pacific languages and cultures, the trend towards the vocational subjects and given that English is regarded as *the* language of business. A number of other factors, real or perceived, must be taken into account when analysing the trends relating to German programmes in Australia.

The career applications of German are not as limited in Australia as may be assumed. One indication of this was a survey of newspaper advertisements for positions requiring foreign languages that indicated a wide range of occupations for graduates of LOTE and a significant increase in the demand for such graduates during the last decade (Stanley *et al.* 1990: 99).⁶⁴⁶ Advertisements requiring German competencies included Marketing Officer (in the electrical industry), Translator (in the Patent Attorney's Office), State Manager for a European Food and Catering Distributor, Secretary/Receptionist at a Language School, Travelling Export Manager/Trainee, Secretary for Importing company; Trade Information Officer and Clerk at the Consulate in Sydney.

Ammon's study (1991a: 33-37) found that the three most often cited reasons for studying German at tertiary level were:⁶⁴⁷

- To be able to communicate with German-speakers abroad;
- The desire to travel as a tourist in a German-speaking country; and
- German improves one's qualifications (and presumably employment prospects).

⁶⁴⁴ Cf. Booth-Whiting 1993: 200-203, 257-259.

⁶⁴⁵ Cf. Brandle 1988a: 44; Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 303-305, 329-332; Booth-Whiting 1993: 226-228.

⁶⁴⁶ Cf. Djité 1994: 79-82, 88; Horst 1998: 668-669.

⁶⁴⁷ Cf. Mau 1983: 82-87; Corkhill 1986: 178; Bickes 1993; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 75-77; Horst 1998: 668; Schmidt 1998: 471-473.

In 1993, Petersen (1993: 83-85) found similar reasons were given:

- The desire to travel to a German-speaking country (74.8 percent);
- An interest in the people and the cultures (61.7 percent);
- The possibility of using *DaF* for their eventual career (57 percent); and
- The desire to study in a German-speaking country (41.3 percent).

Only 34.2 percent of those surveyed by Ammon (1991a: 50-53) indicated they felt motivated to study German because it might improve their qualification and employment chances, while 57 percent of those surveyed by Petersen said the possibility of using *DaF* in their later career was a motivating factor. Students gave the following as their preferred employment (in order of frequency): (German) teacher (17 percent), the diplomatic service (17 percent), the business sector (15 percent), translation and interpretation (10 percent), the law/justice system (10 percent), tourism (7 percent), psychology (3 percent), and others (Ammon 1991d: 144-147, 1991a: 493-494; Petersen 1993: 89-91). Most wanted to utilise their language skills in a practical way, with communicative skills a top priority, and this has implications for tertiary level courses in German (Ammon 1991d: 157).⁶⁴⁸

The options available to graduates of German Studies are simply not promoted as well as they should be. Despite the recent attention given to learning of LOTE in the education system and the relevance to and importance of proficiency of languages for trade, students do not perceive languages as vital for their future education and or employment opportunities. They are sometimes considered an asset, but not a priority in secondary school because LOTE are not crucial for entry to tertiary education or most careers (Ingram 1986: 2, 4-7, Stanley *et al.* 1990; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 67-79, 108-109).

The attitude towards language and cultural competencies of many in the business sector is, however, frequently indifferent (Ingram 1986: 6-7, 23; Stanley *et al.* 1990: 18, 25). The lack of importance given to foreign languages by Australian business is, according to Braunert and Mosler (1995: 119):

a reflection of the fact that Australia finds herself at the beginning of a transition from exporter of primary products (with limited demand for “linguistic professionalism”) to an exporter with a greater emphasis on value-added products to be marketed in highly competitive markets, where language needs will be greater.

Studies into the importance of LOTE to Australian business and foreign relations have found that the changes within the Australian economy, its trading relations and markets (particularly the trend towards Asian and other non-English speaking countries) have led to the need to learn LOTE (Stanley *et al.* 1990: 27-40; Ingram 1986: 28). These reports found foreign language skills are crucial to Australia's attempts to increase its international

⁶⁴⁸ Cf. Australian Advisory Council 1991: 344-389.

competitiveness and improve its export sector. Particularly as Australian industry is characterised by niche products and markets and the need to meet market demands and to develop new and innovative markets and niches (Ingram 1986: 7-18; Wabenhorst 1997).⁶⁴⁹ However, English is still considered to be *the* language of trade.

Australia's major export markets during the early 1990s included only four countries where English is a national language, while the number of non English-speaking trading partners increased. Export earnings from the major non-English speaking trading partners from 1990 to 1992 were almost twice as much as those from English-speaking trading partners (DEET 1990a: 9; Djité 1994: 55-58, 82-88). Stanley *et al.* (1990: 30-33, 53) found that given the shift towards Asian and other non-English speaking markets, the nine languages most in demand (other than English) were Mandarin, Japanese, Arabic, Indonesian, Korean, Thai, Spanish, German and French. Therefore, while it is clear that English is the major language of trade, it is also increasingly clear that foreign language skills will enhance Australia's competitive edge and trading relations (Stanley *et al.* 1990: 98-99, 129-138).

Fernandez *et al.* (1993b: 109) believes the insight into the mentality and culture of another group of people gained through learning a language is an asset as it contributes to creating goodwill and a foundation upon which business negotiations can be initiated and maintained. This has been recognised by leading export countries, such as Germany and Japan, and it is interesting to note that in Japan enrolments in German language courses at the *Goethe-Institut* increased by circa 56 percent between 1987 and 1991. During the same period enrolments in Korea have increased by 250 percent!⁶⁵⁰

According to Scarino *et al.* (1988: 2):

political and economic shifts in power and rapidly changing technology have made the understanding of other languages and cultures an essential factor in successful commercial and political activity. [...] The linguistic diversity of the population is a valuable national resource which should be nurtured, promoted, and used both for social and economic purposes within Australia and internationally.

There are numerous trading opportunities for the export sector with German-speaking countries and German language competencies are vital, so the promotion of the Asian languages at the expense of German (and other European languages) is misguided, given that Europe is the world's largest trading bloc. Many call for the teaching of LOTE to be expanded rather than simply shifting the resources from the teaching of European languages to the teaching of Asian languages (Stanley *et al.* 1990: 100; Djité 1994: 76-89; Wabenhorst 1997).⁶⁵¹

⁶⁴⁹ Cf. Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 390-400; Morgan 1991: 21.

⁶⁵⁰ Cf. Booth-Whiting 1993: 251-252.

⁶⁵¹ Cf. Brändle 1988a: 43-44; Fitzgerald 1991; Reeves 1991; Booth-Whiting 1993: 261-271.

Stanley *et al.* (1990: 65-66, 71-76, 100-103) suggests a number of measures to improve the profile of German in the business sector and the application of the programmes offered to students, including:⁶⁵²

- Assessment of the needs of business and the establishment of links between education and business such as integrated research institutes and exchange programmes between Australian business and educational institutions and those in non-English speaking countries;
- Specific funding for tertiary institutions to introduce a greater variety of language instruction, such as more intensive courses as opposed to the standard degree programme;
- Further development of joint degrees combining business disciplines and other vocational training with language study conducted intensively;
- Development of vocationally-oriented language courses such as interpretation and translation and Business German;
- Encouragement of company internships for business students overseas;
- Credit for study undertaken in overseas institutions;
- A change in the emphasis of scholarship, research and exchange initiatives from the academic orientation to more practical needs of business and export development;
- Development of a career structure for LOTE teachers to reflect the increased importance of teaching LOTE;
- More opportunities for teachers to receive in-country training in Europe and Asia and that all language teachers be required to study or work in the target country as an integral part of training; and
- Marketing to inform students, the business sector and general public of the applications of German.

The perception students have of a particular foreign language is another factor that impacts on the teaching and learning of German. In Australia language studies in general are often considered difficult and too much work for the final examination (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 74-75). According to Booth-Whiting (1993: 224-225), German is perceived as being harder than other European languages and less elegant or romantic than French. She found that many “felt that French was more useful and still had a well deserved first position in the language learning hierarchy”. In addition, the German government has not attempted to create exchange programmes and links with Australian schools as the Japanese had and, therefore, appears more distant. Students cannot see the usefulness of German, because “they are generally unaware of the cultural benefits and the employment opportunities.” (Booth-Whiting 1993: 225) Where schools had organised exchanges or trips to Germany a noticeable increase in the enrolment figures had occurred!

⁶⁵² Cf. Ingram 1986: 19-28; Petersen 1993: 95, 100-101; Wabenhorst 1997.

On the one hand the geographical distance between Germany and Australia means the practical application and 'usefulness' of German is questioned by students, who are often unaware of the number of German-speaking people and opportunities in Australia. On the other hand, the significant number of German-speaking immigrants means the maintenance of the language is important to these people. At the postgraduate level this is especially evident, "da überdurchschnittlich viele Deutschstämmige höhere Abschlüsse anstreben und somit häufig als Doktoranden an den Deutschabteilungen anzutreffen sind (Bickes 1993: 507-508)."⁶⁵³

A number of *institutional factors* impact on the teaching and learning of German in Australia. These include:⁶⁵⁴

- The demands placed on teachers and foreign language departments by the introduction of the language policies and subsequent initiatives;
- The regulatory framework of tertiary study, including the fact that students have a set number of subjects they must take each year and set contact hours per subject;
- The relatively few teaching hours, which make it difficult to achieve fluency in a LOTE as part of the current three-year undergraduate programmes;
- The lack of suitably qualified teachers;
- Continuity and transition issues;
- The fairly marginal role of Germanistik in Australia with its relatively small departments;
- The need to develop courses at the tertiary level to take into account the relatively low entry-level competencies of high school graduates (even those with HSC German).⁶⁵⁵ This is one reason why the texts selected for first-year courses are often 19th and 20th century texts. Stephens (1995: 110-111) contends this problem is heightened by the fact that very little literature of any kind is studied in Australian high schools and English at Year 12 level is not a prerequisite for tertiary level study in some states;
- The degree structures at some universities that place restrictions on the options for combining a language with another subject as language study is often only available within one faculty and students required to select subjects within one faculty. This is a hindrance to the development of interdisciplinary programmes, for instance;
- The diverse methods of delivery, such as distance education, specialist language schools, information technology modes, Saturday schools, itinerant and casual teachers and ethnic schools. Some teachers teach each day at a different school, some German teachers have retrained and now teach Japanese and others travel 200 kilometres per day to teach at various educational institutions!

⁶⁵³ Cf. Ammon 1991d: 97-102, 493-494; Petersen 1993: 91-94.

⁶⁵⁴ Cf. Department of German 1970: 17-18; Schulz 1976: 107; Bowden & Starrs 1984: 2, 6; Veit 1985: 322-326; Australian Academy of the Humanities 1988: xix-xxi; Brändle 1988a: 43; Morgan 1991: 22; Makin 1992: 39-45; Djité 1994: 75-76; Rhie 1997d: 71-72; Horst 1998: 670; Kretzenbacher 1998: 9; Corkhill & Lee 1999.

⁶⁵⁵ Cf. Corkhill 1986: 178; Schmidt 1998: 473.

- Teacher - student ratios;
- The increasing number of mature or adult students at some universities, which has consequences for the teaching methods used; and
- The deletion of courses due to factors such as the retirement of staff as opposed to the professed objective of a coherent national programme of LOTE teaching.

It is not so much the *linguistic differences between English and German* that impact on the teaching and learning of German in Australia, but rather the diversity of community languages spoken as mother tongues, although little research appears to have been done into this.⁶⁵⁶

Some *social and cultural factors* appear to impact on the teaching and learning of foreign languages, including German, although not to the same extent as in the Asian countries in this study. Possibly because of the diverse ethnic backgrounds, native languages and cultures and the language programmes offered in Australia. Or perhaps there has not been as much research into this particular aspect of German in Australia as compared with China, for instance (Horst 1998: 670-671).

Veit (1985, 1992, 1999: 260-261), however, discusses the different associations students of Germanistik (and readers of German literature) in Australia have as compared with their German-speaking counterparts. The tendency towards practical and vocational studies is evident, according to Veit (1985: 319), in that:

Vor allem anderen ist dem australischen Studenten das relevant, was neben allen Rücksichten auf Berufschancen den Prozeß der Selbstfindung unterstützt und zum Erwerb eines gesellschaftlichen und politischen Bewußtseins in Australien beiträgt.

He regards this as an example highlighting the different hermeneutics of German Studies outside German-speaking countries.

II.4.4 Germanistik and Innovative Developments in the Field of German Studies.

II.4.4.1 The development of the discipline.

The Germanistik discipline with a distinct identity within Australian universities developed only relatively recently. German was introduced at the universities of Sydney and Melbourne in the 1850s and by WWI was also offered at Adelaide, Hobart, Brisbane and Perth. Postgraduates from Sydney travelled to Germany from the 1890s onwards. As in other countries influenced by Great Britain, German was taught at Australian universities before 1945 together with other European languages and literatures (primarily French) in departments of Modern Languages or Schools of Languages, which were most often headed

⁶⁵⁶ Cf. Bowden & Starrs 1984.

by a Professor of French (Clyne 1981: 77-78; Veit 1984: 6; Stilz 1995: 157).⁶⁵⁷ In 1914 there were 74 students of German at the six universities offering German and in 1933 there were 111 students of Germanistik at the eight universities then offering German. Separate chairs and departments of German were first established at the Universities of Melbourne (1951) and Sydney (1938) and these remained the only chairs until 1957 when there were a total of 380 students of German throughout Australia (Clyne 1981: 77-78; Mau 1983: 91, Appendix 24a; Veit 1984: 6-7).

The increase in student numbers at tertiary institutions during the 1960s was reflected not only in the development of autonomous German departments (as distinct from the earlier departments or schools of modern languages), but also in the number of chairs in German. Three additional departments (Monash, NSW and Macquarie) were established. By 1970 there were twelve departments of German, of which only one, Macquarie, remained a section of the School of Modern European Languages (Kooznetzoff 1969: 5; Veit 1984: 6).⁶⁵⁸ There were a total of 1736 students at the universities of Adelaide, Melbourne, New England, NSW, Newcastle, Queensland, Sydney, Tasmania and WA, the ANU in Canberra and Monash University in Melbourne in 1970 (Department of German 1970: 5; Mau 1983: Appendix 24c). German departments increased their staffing levels to meet the demands of the significant increase in student numbers (Clyne 1981: 77-78; Stilz 1995: 160-161). According to Veit (1984: 6), these new staff, both Australian and from abroad, "added considerably to the traditional image of German studies by giving new impulses particularly in the area of linguistics, comparative literature and interdisciplinary studies." Veit's 1984 directory found that of the 102 Germanisten listed, 40 were born in German-speaking European countries.

The expansion experienced by the departments at this time was partly because most universities had introduced beginners' courses for those students who had not learnt German at school. By 1978 the overall number of students studying German at Australian universities had increased to over 2000 students at the twelve universities that offered German programmes (Clyne 1981: 101).⁶⁵⁹ The number of Honours students also increased from 27 in 1965 to 56 in 1973. During the same period the number of postgraduate (Masters and doctoral) students increased from 71 to 126. Increasing numbers of postgraduates also went to Europe with the assistance of European cultural organisations (Stoljar 1998: 107).

Students at the time could major in the subject by either taking a Pass (or B.A.) degree (with six semesters study) or an Honours degree (with eight semesters study). Others studied German as a supporting or minor subject because until the late 1960s students in the

⁶⁵⁷ Cf. Department of German 1970: 2; Schulz 1976: 106, 1990: 9-10; Cohen & Joy 1978: 39; Stoljar 1998: 107; Deichsel 1989: 107.

⁶⁵⁸ Cf. Apelt 1975: 24-25; Mau 1983: 33-34, 91; Petersen 1993: 58.

⁶⁵⁹ Cf. Wykes 1966: 22; Australian Universities Commission 1972: 97; Mau 1983: Appendix 10, 24c; Veit 1984: 7; Gabel 1990: 3.

Humanities or Arts faculties were required to take a foreign language for at least two semesters.

Prior to the abolition of the foreign languages requirement in the late 1960s and early 1970s German departments had imitated or adapted the curricula of *Binnengermanistik*. This meant that primarily literary studies were taught. It was simply expected that one had learnt German in school and, therefore, had the necessary competencies to read and analyse selected German literature (Rhie 1997d: 69).⁶⁶⁰

Die Aufgabe der Deutschabteilungen sah man überwiegend darin, das Schuldeutsch der nun eingeschriebenen Studenten zu erweitern und zu vertiefen, es anzuwenden beim literarischen Studium von Goethe und Brecht, von Hölderlin und Hülshoff. Innerhalb der verschiedenen australischen Deutschabteilungen wurde der reine Sprachunterricht oft als zweitrangig, als weniger wichtig und deshalb als nicht wissenschaftlich genug betrachtet.

Evidence of this emphasis on literature are the 235 M.A. and PhD theses in German submitted from 1940 to 1985 in Australia (most between 1960 and the late 1980s) contained in Gabel's 1990 bibliography, all of which were essentially on literary topics (Gabel 1990: 4).

The history of the Department of German Studies at Melbourne University reflects the development of the discipline in Australia and, according to Stoljar (1995: 199), was shaped by three major academics. Initially the chair was established for English, French and German literature. Augustin Lodewyckx, a Belgian, was appointed in 1915 and established the Department of Germanic Languages with courses in Dutch and Germanic philology as well as German language and literature. Literature formed the core of the programme and students who completed the three-year degree (Stoljar 1995: 201).⁶⁶¹

would emerge with a solid grounding in the standard classical works, a respectable knowledge of Middle High German and a modest acquaintance with nineteenth and early twentieth century works. More significantly, they would have gained an insight into the attitudes to intellectual, literary and cultural history that characterized the inter-war period

Lodewyckx, however, was never promoted to full professor, a reflection perhaps of the feeling many had about the desirability of German studies. In contrast a colleague was appointed to the Chair of French in 1938.⁶⁶²

In 1947, Richard Samuel came to Melbourne from Cambridge and was appointed to the first Chair of German at Melbourne in 1951. As Head of Department he modernised the text selection somewhat with more emphasis on 18th and 19th century works. During this period the department gained an international reputation and at one point had 30 M.A. and PhD students (Stoljar 1995: 201-205). In 1969 Gerhard Schulz, an East German, was appointed

⁶⁶⁰ Cf. Siliakus 1972; Cohen & Joy 1978: 39-40; Stoljar 1990, 1993: 385, 1998: 107; Stephens 1995: 110.

⁶⁶¹ Honours students had almost a double workload during the three years.

⁶⁶² Cf. Pollack 1967; Department of German 1970: 9.

to the Chair in German where he remained until 1992. During his tenure there were substantial changes in the administrative structure of Australian universities and he modernised the syllabus, particularly at the pass level. Works by Brecht, Weiss, Borchert and Dürrenmatt were introduced at first-year level, although Goethe, Schiller and Heine were still included. Middle High German remained for Honours students, but the previously compulsory courses in the third and fourth years were replaced with a range of options (Stoljar 1995: 205-207). The department also continued to offer courses in Dutch, Swedish and Old-Icelandic languages and literatures (Department of German 1970: 9). Stoljar (1995: 206) describes this new flexibility as illustrating “the then common changes in the Arts degree that followed semesterisation, whereby an invariable sequence of courses was for most subjects replaced by options.”

By the end of the 1970s the programme at Melbourne included a postgraduate diploma with an emphasis on the current issues in East and West Germany. The range of Honours options had increased and the courses in East German literature, literature and film and German women writers reflected the expansion of the discipline and the shift towards German Studies internationally. And although core (composite) courses for those majoring in German remained, there was a significant degree of choice offered to students (Stoljar 1995: 207).

In the early 1970s Australian German departments had close contact with the secondary schools, particularly as the professors within the discipline (as with other foreign language disciplines) were usually responsible for the secondary school curriculum and the examinations in their particular state. And because there was no German cultural institute in Australia at the time, the German departments were essentially responsible (in cooperation with the diplomatic staff of the region) for the promotion of the culture of the German-speaking countries (Department of German 1970: 2; Schulz 1976: 106).

All twelve departments offered beginners' courses (aimed at bringing these students up to the level of those who had previously taken the subject by their third year of study),⁶⁶³ a three-year B.A. or Pass degree programme majoring in German for those with HSC or matriculation level German, a four-year Honours degree and postgraduate level (M.A. (by coursework and or thesis) and PhD) programmes. At Macquarie University the B.A. degree for those training to be teachers at the same time comprised four years study, while the Honours programme for those training to be teachers comprised five years study (Department of German 1970: 7-8). At least five of the departments offered courses in Science German for students of other disciplines (such as the Sciences and History), who needed to learn German to assist in their major study. Some departments also had an external studies or distance education section (Veit 1984: 6).⁶⁶⁴

⁶⁶³ Cf. Schulz 1976: 107; Deichsel 1989: 51.

⁶⁶⁴ Cf. Department of German 1970: 2; Mau 1983: 33; Veit 1988: 19; Petersen 1993: 60.

Most departments had between six and eight staff in the early 1970s, with the exception of Monash and Melbourne, which had fifteen staff members each, and Queensland, which had twelve. Other academics contributed to German Studies as scholars of history, history of art and music, general linguistics and philosophy, for instance (Veit 1984: 6). Student numbers ranged from circa 80 at the universities of Newcastle and Tasmania to circa 580 at the University of Queensland, although most departments had approximately 200 students. Because of the significant number of German immigrants (and their descendants) in Australia, there were (and are) often a considerable number of students with a German-speaking background.⁶⁶⁵

The study of German as a major in Australian universities during the 1970s and 1980s included intensive language lessons, German literary studies and linguistics. Most universities also offered, particularly at the first year level, cultural courses. The main focus of the programmes offered varied depending on the university. For example, the emphasis may have been on the major epochs, on modern literature, on literature and linguistics studies, or on literary studies with linguistics and language studies as only a 'side issue' (Department of German 1970: 2; Deichsel 1989: 61).⁶⁶⁶

One typical characteristic of courses in Australia at the time, particularly in the first two years of study, was the core courses combining language acquisition skills with an introduction to and the study of German literature and cultural history.⁶⁶⁷ These composite courses were often called 'German I', 'German II' and 'German III' and averaged four teaching hours per week per course. These courses were accompanied by (or in some cases in the third year of study replaced by) additional courses in literature, linguistics and or culture. These gave students a relatively comprehensive insight into the literary epochs, an array of significant authors and works, the history, culture and society of the German-speaking countries from the Middle Ages through to the present and the history of the German language.⁶⁶⁸ *LK* topics were mainly offered within the culture component or in relation to the texts studied (Deichsel 1989: 95).

The Honours programmes in German required students to complete additional papers (to those required for the B.A.) from the second year of study onwards and to complete a fourth year of study. Honours courses offered included courses on the history of the German language, the intensive study of particular literary epochs, authors, genre and topics (such as early new High German and Baroque texts, Middle High German language, literature and cultural history, the study of Goethe's later works, German prose since 1945, German

⁶⁶⁵ Cf. Ammon 1991d: 97-102, 1991b: 493-494.

⁶⁶⁶ Cf. Mau 1983: 35, 96-97.

⁶⁶⁷ Cf. Department of German 1970: 6-21; University of New South Wales 1972: A70-A71; Deichsel 1989: 71-72.

⁶⁶⁸ Cf. Pollack 1967; Schulz 1976: 107-109; H. Beyersdorf (University of New England), *Personal correspondence*, 7 July 1998.

expressionist drama, Schiller's dramas and Kafka's *Erzählungen*), German linguistics and literary theory and criticism (Department of German 1970: 6-21). In the fourth year of study students often researched topics that reflected their specific interests and the expertise of the staff.

A substantial piece of written work or thesis was also required. At the University of Tasmania, for instance, all Honours students were required to submit a fifty to seventy-page research paper on a literary or language history topic. Postgraduate level research included M.A. theses on Lessing, Brecht, Frisch, Grass' *Blechtrommel* and PhD theses on Gryphius, Romanticism, Kafka, the German war novel, and 'Germany and the Heritage of the Hebrew Psalter' in the early 1970s. Staff research interests during the same period included modern lyrics, Goethe's morphology, Lessing's comedies, Gryphius and the influence of the Germans on Australian literature (Department of German 1970: 19-20).

At some universities, the maintenance of the Germanic languages was encouraged within the Honours programme. At the ANU, the maintenance of Old Nordic and Swedish was encouraged. In 1970 a two-year course in Swedish for beginners was introduced and in 1971 a similar course for Dutch was introduced. At Melbourne students could choose between an Honours programme in German or Dutch. And in the fourth year at the University of Sydney, students could choose between literary and language courses that included the intensive study of Gothic, Old High German and Middle High German (Department of German 1970: 7, 9, 17-18).

The structure and diversity of the programmes offered during the 1970s and 1980s at Australian universities is perhaps best illustrated by several brief examples. The **Department of German at Monash** was founded in 1965 and by 1970 had 15 teaching staff, 180 students in the beginners' German course and the Science German course, 110 majoring in German within a B.A. or Honours programme and 20 M.A. and PhD students in the 'Graduate School'. At Monash there was a distinct separation between language and literary studies. The B.A. programme included the most important periods of German literature from the 18th century through to the present (studied in the cultural and historical context), an introduction to German linguistics, together with specialised language courses at each level.⁶⁶⁹ Classes were taught mainly in small groups and a special course offered for beginners. The language courses included use of modern language laboratories and the grammar, conversation and language laboratory tutorials were closely coordinated (Department of German 1970: 10-11).⁶⁷⁰

⁶⁶⁹ Cf. Petersen 1993: 60-61.

⁶⁷⁰ Cf. P. Thomson (Monash University), *Personal correspondence*, 2 June 1998.

From the second year onwards Honours students were required to complete additional courses in German literature and linguistics. In their third year Honours students could take additional optional courses in Germanistik or in related subjects, such as History, Psychology or Politics. The literature and linguistic courses in the graduate school aimed to give students an in-depth knowledge of their discipline. Staff research interests at the time included literary theory, literary history, comparative literary studies, nationalism in modern German literature, 18th century Austrian literature, German Australiana, Heine, Kafka, H. and Th. Mann, the German novel of the 19th and 20th centuries, contrastive phonology and syntax of English and German, bilingualism and language conservation of German immigrants to Australia, German language islands in Australia and English loanwords in contemporary German (Department of German 1970: 10-11).

A Centre for General and Comparative Literature was established at Monash in the late 1960s and in the early 1980s an interdisciplinary diploma programme in 'Migrant Studies' was developed as a direct result of the immigration situation in Victoria. This comprised courses in Anthropology, Sociology, Social Work, History, Geography, Linguistics, German, Japanese and Politics (Mau 1983: 102-103).

In the early 1970s, the ***School of German at the University of New South Wales*** (which was founded in 1965) offered two first year courses, one for students who had studied German to HSC level (German I) and one for those with no previous knowledge of German (German IZ). Students enrolling in German IZ were required (through intensive study of the language and a vacation study programme) to reach an equivalent standard to students in other stream by the end of the third year of study. It was possible for these students to complete an Honours degree in German within four years (Milfull 1970: 19).⁶⁷¹

The German I programme gave students a solid linguistic basis. Literary texts were selected almost exclusively from the 20th century to ensure students were familiarised with modern usage of the German language. Authors and works selected included Brecht's *Der gute Mensch von Sezuan*, *Der kaukasische Kreidekreis*, and *Mutter Courage und ihre Kinder*, selected works by Kafka, Büchner and Th. Mann (University of New South Wales 1972: A70-A71).

From second year onwards students could chose between a specialised literature course and a language-oriented option in which literary texts were "treated not so much from a critical point of view as for their relationship to contemporary German society." (Department of German 1970: 13) Authors, topics and periods studied as part of the literary option, included Goethe, Naturalism, the late 18th century, the poetry and prose of the late Romanticism, Büchner, Hofmannsthal, an introduction to Old High German, Fontane, Mann

⁶⁷¹ Cf. Department of German 1970: 13.

and the *Gesellschaftsroman*, Kafka's novels, an introduction to the history of the German language, Wedekind and Brecht. The authors studied as part of the language-oriented option included Andersch, Böll, Dürrenmatt, Frisch, Grass and Huch (University of New South Wales 1972: A71-A73). In both the second and third years, a survey-style course that aimed to provide students with a general knowledge of intellectual developments in Germany during the past 300 years was also offered.

Students wishing to take an Honours programme in German could choose between a specialised study of German literature (including discussion of authors such as Hesse, Th. Mann and Broch), the history, methodology and aims of literary studies and a language course designed as an introduction to the historical study of the German language and linguistic theory. These courses were a reflection of the staff research interests, which included Middle High German language and literature, the Baroque, Classical and Romanticism periods, the modern novel and contemporary literature as well as literary theory (Department of German 1970: 13; University of New South Wales 1972: A75).

The ***German Department at the University of Queensland*** dates back to when the university was first established in 1911 and German was one of the limited number of subjects offered. German was not offered from 1914 through to the mid 1930s at Queensland because of the anti-German sentiment during and in the aftermath of WWI. WWII caused further setbacks but the subject was reintroduced during the 1950s and the dramatic increase in student numbers during the 1970s and 1980s meant that the department was (and remains) the largest in Australia and attest to the status of German as a major foreign language in Queensland (Jurgensen and Corkhill 1988: xv).

Similar to other Australian universities, the department offered a composite course at the first-year level until 1975 for those students majoring in German. 'German I' included an overview of German cultural history, discussion of a selection of German lyric and epics of the 19th and 20th centuries and conversation and translation exercises designed to increase the students' ability to speak and understand German. This comprised four contact hours per week (two hours language instruction, one hour cultural history and one hour literature) for 28 weeks of the year divided into three terms. The course contained no optional components (Department of German 1970: 15-16; Leopold 1985: 118-119). The literature component consisted of the study of five prose works and a number of poems. For example, in 1965 students studied Hebel's *Aus dem Schatzkästlein des Rheinischen Hausfreundes*, Eichendorff's *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts*, Droste-Hülshoff's *Die Judenbuche*, Storm's *Immensee*, Th. Mann's *Mario und der Zauberer* and extracts of L. Forster's *The Penguin Book of German Verse*. According to Leopold (1985: 118-119), the emphasis of the literary component was on interpretative literary criticism. 'German II' covered the literary periods from the Enlightenment through to Goethe's death and included advanced conversation and translation exercises. 'German III' discussed the epochs from the end of

the Romantic period to the present and included oral and written exercises (Department of German 1970: 15-16).

Honours students were required to complete these courses plus at the first-year level an introduction to linguistics, at the second-year level courses in Middle High German (I), the history of the German language and additional works from the literary periods covered in German II. At the third-year level Honours students were required to complete additional courses in Middle High German (II), another Germanic language or additional works from the literary periods covered in German III. At fourth-year level twelve courses were offered, four of which were compulsory and a further four literature or language courses students selected from a number of options.

In 1975, however, the university introduced the semester system and the composite course was divided up into smaller units, such as "German Language, German Phonetics, German Cultural History, Selected German Classics, and Modern German Authors." (Leopold 1985: 119) Each became a one-semester course worth five credit points towards a degree total of 240 credits, 60 of which had to be in German if the student was majoring in the subject (including at least five in language courses each semester). Students had choice for the first time in designing their degree programme and the decline in the numbers enrolled in literature courses was dramatic. Language enrolments remained relatively high as did the numbers in cultural history and phonetics.⁶⁷²

During the 1980s, a major in German linguistics was introduced. This programme aimed to give students an insight into the structural framework of the German language and how these structures are used in everyday communication (German Department 1987a: 12-13, 1987b: 7-9). By the late 1980s the department was offering courses in language, literature, cultural history and linguistics. For instance, introductory German language courses, 'Basic Conversational German', mainstream German language courses at all levels, an 'Introduction to German Linguistics', 'German Pronunciation and Phonetics', an 'Introduction to German Literature, 1730-1830 (and 1830-1945)', 'German for Translators', 'Medieval Germany', 'Intellectual Traditions of Modern Germany: From Lessing to Hegel (and From Hegel to Adorno)', 'The Modern German Novel: 1900 to the Thirties', 'Contemporary German Cinema', 'Modern German Drama since 1933', 'German Cultural History', 'Modern German Authors', 'The 20th-Century German Short Story', 'History of the German Language', 'Authors of the Romantic Period', 'Language, Form and Style in 20th-Century German Literature', 'German Grammar Models' and 'German Semantics' (German Department 1987b: 1, 4-5, 14-20, 27-31).⁶⁷³

⁶⁷² Cf. Cohen & Joy 1978: 40.

⁶⁷³ Cf. Corkhill 1986.

In addition, faculty approval was granted in the late 1980s for a new interdisciplinary subject on the Germans in Australia and the South Pacific, a collaborative project between the departments of German and History (German Department 1988: 2-3).

According to the departmental handbook (German Department 1987b: 10-11), however, the department was no longer able to offer the wide range of Honours courses that had previously been offered due to staffing difficulties. Students could still choose papers that gave their Honours programme a bias towards either language or literature, including 'Advanced Translation and Composition', 'Advanced Oral Work', 'Dialects of Modern German', 'The German Baroque', 'The German Drama From Lessing to Hebbel', a 'Special Subject' in either 'German/Australian Literary Relations' or 'Linguistic Structures in Institutional Communication', '*Deutsche Klassik und Romantik*' and a thesis (German Department 1987b: 21-22).

Veit (1984: 6) describes the 1980s as a period of consolidation as the discipline attempted to adapt to a decline in student numbers in modern languages worldwide.⁶⁷⁴ The numbers of students learning German during the 1980s remained fairly stable at circa 1800 to 2000 students in total (Mau 1983: Appendix 10; Veit 1988: 17-18; Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 44). A number of universities introduced more choice in their literary offerings by substituting the composite courses with a variety of courses. However, the programmes still consisted of core language, literature and cultural history papers and a number of options chosen from literature, linguistics and cultural papers (Veit 1988: 19). At Macquarie, Monash and NSW the programmes offered included the possibility of integrating options from other disciplines or subjects. At Macquarie the programme comprised language courses and interdisciplinary courses in literature and linguistics. At NSW the integration of literature, civilisation and history led to the development of a programme in Western European Studies in addition to the German Studies programme. At Monash German Studies could be supplemented by courses from the Centre of General and Comparative Literature, which were taught by the departments of Classical Studies, German, English, History, Romance Languages, Slavic Languages, Politics, Sociology and Visual Arts. In addition, graduate students could include papers from the Centre for Migrant and Intercultural Studies in which papers were taught by the language departments, Linguistics, Education, History and Geography. The establishment of the Centre of European Studies in 1987 furthered the interdisciplinary options available to students at Monash (Veit 1988: 20).

According to Kooznetzoff (1969: 5), the standard of Germanistik research in Australia has increased and diversified parallel to the expansion of the discipline and the tertiary sector in general.⁶⁷⁵ Richard H. Samuel and Gerhard Schulz' edition on the German Romantic author, Friedrich von Hardenberg (Novalis) is one example of the research undertaken by

⁶⁷⁴ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 38.

⁶⁷⁵ Cf. Schulz 1976: 113; Stoljar 1998: 108.

the discipline in Australia. Samuel was the Chairperson of the Department of Germanic Studies at the University of Melbourne for over twenty years and received numerous accolades for his research and teaching and work on committees, both in Australia and internationally, and Schulz published widely on German Naturalism (Kooznetzoff 1969: 5-6). German literature of the 19th and early 20th century appears to be the focal point of interest for many Australian scholars in the field. For instance, Professor Ralph B. Farrell at Sydney University concentrated largely on Mörike. The influx of overseas scholars to Australia during the 1960s and 1970s contributed to the diversification of research. Two such scholars were Professor L. Bodi (whose major interests included Habsburg literature and society and German Australiana) and Professor J. H. Tisch (whose major interests were the German Renaissance and Baroque periods).

The work of Australian trained Germanisten includes Leopold's research into German grammar and the modern novel, Coghlan's work on Hofmannsthal, Norst's work on Stifter, Triebel's work on the history of early German settlement in Australia and Taëni's work on the modern German drama (Kooznetzoff 1969: 7).⁶⁷⁶ During the past three decades there has been increased interest in and research into linguistics topics, although Farrell had already published a *Dictionary of German Synonyms* in 1953 (Stoljar 1998: 108). One notable researcher and author, who has made diverse contributions to the discipline, particularly in the field of sociolinguistic research into the German and Dutch languages, German-English language contact and conflict, community languages and bilingualism and the maintenance and shift of community languages in Australia, is Professor Michael Clyne.⁶⁷⁷ His current research includes leading a team of linguistic researchers at the University of Melbourne developing new models of teaching community languages (Arabic, Greek, Mandarin and Spanish) in Australian secondary schools.⁶⁷⁸

Despite the relatively large distances between the various departments in Australia, the contact is dynamic and varied. The Australasian Universities Language and Literature Association (AULLA), established in 1950 and known then as the Australasian Universities Modern Languages Association, organises a conference in either New Zealand or Australia every 18 months and publishes the *AUMLA* journal. An academic association for Germanisten, the Australian and New Zealand Association of University Teachers of German, was established in 1969, an indication of the increasing cooperation between New Zealand and Australian scholars. Since 1966 an annual seminar for Australian Germanisten has been held at the ANU in Canberra. In the centres with more than one university, research seminars are held on a regular basis. At most universities, there are ties with the Goethe Societies, which organise seminars and guest lectures for the wider public (Kooznetzoff 1969: 8; Department of German 1970: 2; Stoljar 1998: 107).

⁶⁷⁶ For examples of further literary topics researched by Germanisten in Australia see Schulz *et al.* 1990.

⁶⁷⁷ Cf. Smolicz 1987: 316, 330-334; Mann & Baldauf 1992; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 60-61; Waas 1996: 40; Ehlich 1997; Stoljar 1998: 108.

⁶⁷⁸ Cf. <http://www.unimelb.edu.au/uninews/linguisticsteam.htm> (17 April 2001).

A reflection of the standard of Germanistik research in Australia is perhaps the number of scholarships and exchanges awarded to academics and students. DAAD scholarships have been offered since 1955 and Humboldt scholarships from 1953. Between 1953 and 1993 approximately 300 Australian academics were given the opportunity to research in Germany. This is quite significant in comparison to other countries with Australia ranked fifth after the US, Japan, France and Canada in terms of research fellowships for German academics between 1979 and 1993. In 1967 the Society for Australian-German Student Exchange was established (Mau 1983: 81-82, Appendix 19; Stilz 1995: 158, 163, 174).⁶⁷⁹

Australian Germanisten publish in numerous academic journals, such as *Colloquia Germanica*, *German Life and Letters*, *Seminar* (an Australian-Canadian joint publication), *Melbourne Monograph in Germanic Studies* and the *Australisch-Neuseeländische Studien zur Germanistik* (which began publication (in Switzerland) in the 1960s). Queensland is the only university in Australia with a recognised unit in German-Australian (Cultural) Studies, and the unit has published nine internationally successful books in the last decade, including the series, *German-Australian Studies*. It is the largest department in the country with a “special emphasis on the study of the German language and literature in the context of national culture, trade, politics, and the sciences.” (Jurgensen 1995: v) The department first published another series, *Queensland Studies in German Language and Literature*, in 1971. Melbourne has a long tradition of research in German literary history and criticism and at Monash considerable research has been undertaken into comparative literary studies and the history of the German presence in colonial Australia (Stoljar 1998: 109).

One indication of the diversity of German Studies research in Australia is Veit and Wolf’s *Bibliography of German studies in Australia. Didactics, film, language, literature*, which contains details of the publications of 73 Australian Germanisten from 22 institutions. There are examples of language and literature research, German linguistics, applied linguistics and Intercultural German Studies.⁶⁸⁰ In recent years there has been an increasingly strong emphasis on European Studies (including politics and culture) and German Studies research (including the Arts, history and politics) given the development of these two fields. Due to the marked increase in beginners studying the language, considerable research into second language acquisition and applied linguistics has been undertaken (Morgan 1998: 120-121, 123-124; Stoljar 1998: 110-111). Emphasis has also been placed on researching German-Australian relations, a trend that reflects the increasing competition with Asian languages due to the government’s focus on Asia and those languages considered economically beneficial, which has essentially forced German departments to adapt and find new methods, structures and programmes to survive.⁶⁸¹

⁶⁷⁹ Cf. Schulz 1976: 112.

⁶⁸⁰ Cf. Schulz *et al.* 1990; Veit & Wolf 1993.

⁶⁸¹ Cf. Schulz 1976: 112.

II.4.4.2 Germanistik versus German Studies.

At tertiary level demand for German language courses increased between 1985 and 1992 partially due to the emergence of a united Germany and its enhanced position as a dominant political and economic power in Europe. By 1993 German was offered as a degree subject at the following fifteen universities nationwide (with the exception of the NT⁶⁸²): the Universities of Adelaide, Melbourne, Newcastle, New England, NSW, Queensland, Sydney, Tasmania and WA, the ANU, Macquarie University, Monash University, the Queensland University of Technology, the University of Southern Queensland and the University of Western Sydney (Djite 1994: 118-121; <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/universi.htm> (23 May 2001)). Since 1989 the German department at Adelaide has offered a full undergraduate programme in German at Flinders University as part of a 'Language Outreach Programme'.⁶⁸³ The *Goethe-Institut* estimates circa 2500 students are enrolled in German at these institutions, but data are incomplete and varied.⁶⁸⁴ These institutions also offered German courses after hours as part of a Language Centre, which may or may not have been connected with the German department or section at the respective university (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 18-23).

A number of other universities and tertiary institutions also offered German as 'service' courses or as part of another programme, but not as a major subject. Edith Cowan University, for instance, offered German as an elective for beginners and two further units for students with Year 12 German or those who have completed the beginners' course. 'German Studies' was also offered as part of the four-year Bachelor of Music. German is also available as part of an after hours language programme at La Trobe University,⁶⁸⁵ James Cook University of Northern Queensland and the University of Wollongong amongst others (Veit 1988: 16-17; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 19).⁶⁸⁶

The overall trend at six of these universities (Monash, Melbourne and the Universities of WA, NSW, Tasmania and Adelaide) between 1988 and 1992 was one of increased numbers (although with fluctuations between the different levels and kinds of courses) (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 20-22). For instance, Tasmania had 78 students in 1990 and 134 by 1991 and NSW had 299 in 1990 and 460 in 1991. Fluctuations and decreases in student numbers at the University of Sydney during the same period indicate that overall the situation of the German language courses at university level was relatively stable during the early 1990s (Djite 1994: 118-121). The greatest increase in demand was for the beginners' courses, indicating perhaps a "growing awareness of the increasingly important role Germany is

⁶⁸² Cf. C. Bursa (Northern Territory School of Languages), *Personal correspondence*, 16 June 1998.

⁶⁸³ Cf. <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/cesagi/germenhb.html> (24 May 2001).

⁶⁸⁴ According to Fernandez *et al.* (1993b: 19), it is difficult to ascertain exactly how many are studying German at the tertiary level as some states record these as EFTSU and other in terms of the actual student numbers.

⁶⁸⁵ Cf. 1998 *Course & Subject Guide* 1998: 3.

⁶⁸⁶ This may explain why Rhie (1997d: 71-72) and Kretzenbacher (1998) write that 21 or 22 universities offer German programmes in Australia.

assuming in Europe and therefore of the relevance of German as a tertiary subject." (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 23). However, Stoljar (1993: 386-387) says the demand for German as a major has decreased overall during the past decade.

Victoria (followed by SA) is the centre of the teaching and learning of German in Australia, and Melbourne with its two large and diverse German departments at Melbourne and Monash universities is the centre of German Studies at the tertiary level.⁶⁸⁷ In 1990 Melbourne had circa 240 students (80 EFTSUs) up from 157 in 1988 and Monash had circa 255 (85 EFTSUs) up from 180 in 1988 (although in terms of actual student numbers the Universities of Sydney and Queensland were larger with circa 360 and 275 students respectively) (Australian Advisory Council 1991: 164). Melbourne and Monash had a total of circa 600 students (200 EFTSUs) in 1992 and by 1998 this had risen to a total of circa 840 students (280 EFTSUs) as compared with a total of circa 2520 students (840 EFTSUs)⁶⁸⁸ studying German throughout Australia in 1996 (Kretzenbacher 1998: 2, 4, 18, 25; Schmidt 1998: 471).

Part of the reason for the increase in demand for and the popularity of the German programme at the University of Melbourne is that in 1996/97 the department turned the non-language components at all levels into options offered in what the department terms linguistics, literature and background (LK) 'Special Studies' units. Students now study German for four years selecting options from one or more of these areas. These units are taught in German and the department, therefore, 'sells' them to the faculty as an integral part of the language-learning programme. The change was "absolute and immediate and found instantly to be a success" according to Associate Professor Donaldson ((Melbourne University), *Personal correspondence*, 11 May 1998). This was a significant shift in terms of the departmental orientation reflecting perceived student demand and has been one reason for the record retention rates that the department is currently experiencing.

The department's actual teaching programme in 1998 comprised at the *first-year level* the following:⁶⁸⁹

- Advanced German (A and B semester) language courses for those students with Victoria Certificate of Education (VCE) German or the equivalent, Beginners' language courses and Intermediate courses for those who have had some German (up to Year 11 at secondary school);
- Advanced German A students in the first semester selected two 'Special Studies' units from: German as a linguistic system; Ludwig Tieck's Fairy Tales (*Der blonde Eckbert* and *Der Runenberg*); English Grammar; *30 Jahre deutscher Terrorismus*

⁶⁸⁷ Cf. Mau 1983; Bodi & Jeffries 1985; Petersen 1993.

⁶⁸⁸ Fink (1995: 35-37) puts this figure at circa 4000 students in 1995.

⁶⁸⁹ Cf. 1998 *Course & Subject Guide* 1998: 23-57, 65-66; <http://www.german-swedish.unimelb.edu.au/German/index.html> (17 April 2001); <http://www.arts.unimelb.edu.au/Dept/Germanic/Russian.html> (2 May 1998).

(including discussion of Böll's *Die verlorene Ehre der Katharina Blum*); and Austria Past and Present;

- A course on 'German Literature and Society 1871-1933', which discussed major 20th century German literary works, such as Fontane's *Effi Briest*, H. Mann's *Man of Straw*, Kafka's *The Trial*, Roth's *Radetzkymarsch*, Hesse's *Steppenwolf* and Th. Mann's *Mario and the Magician*, in their cultural and political context (in translation);
- Those students doing Advanced or Intermediate German in the second semester also selected two units from: German as a Linguistic system: Introduction to the Linguistics of German II; Phonetics; Twentieth Century Short Stories (including discussion of authors such as Th. Mann and Kafka); Translation; Germany from the collapse of the GDR to the present; Contrastive Linguistics of German and English; and The Third Reich: Nazi Germany 1933-45; and
- A course in second semester on 'German Literature and Society 1933-1992', which discussed major 20th century German literary works, such as Th. Mann's *The Tables of the Law*, Brecht's *Fear and Misery in the Third Reich*, Borchert's *The Man Outside*, Ch. Wolf's *The Quest for Christa T.* and *What remains* and Böll's *The Lost Honour of Katharina Blum*, in their cultural and political context (in translation).

And at the *second and third-year and honours levels*:

- Advanced German Second Year A, Advanced German Third Year A and German Third Year A (Intermediate) language courses in the first semester of 1998;
- Students also selected one unit from: *Deutsche Syntax*; *Deutsche Literatur um die Jahrhundertwende* (including Schnitzler's *Fräulein Else*, Kafka's *Das Urteil*, Hofmannsthal's *Ein Brief* and Musil's *Drei Frauen*); *Nationalismus I*; *Holländisch* (Linguistics); and *Regionale deutsche Prosa im 19. Jahrhundert* (including von Droste-Hülshoff's *Die Judenbuche*, Gotthelf's *Die schwarze Spinne*, Stifter's *Granit*, Keller's *Die drei gerechten Kammacher* and Storm's *Schimmelreiter*);
- Single semester courses offered at the third and fourth-year levels in the first semester included 'Die Entstehung des anderen Geschlechtes: Frauen und Frauenbilder in der Deutschen Aufklärung' (including Lessing's *Miß Sara Sampson* and *Emilia Galotti*, La Roche's *Das Fräulein von Sternheim*, and excerpts from the anthology >>*Bist du Luftbild oder Leben?*<< *Brautbriefe aus zwei Jahrhunderten (1750-1833)*), 'Literatur nach dem Holocaust' (including discussion of major post-war German authors such as Celan, Becher, Lasker-Schüler and Bobrowski and minor authors such as Coryllis, Alsberg, Bahrs and Kopp), 'The Austrian Novelist Joseph Roth', 'Auferarbeitung der DDR-Vergangenheit: Opfer und Täter der Staatssicherheit' and 'Text Linguistics of German';
- Advanced German Second Year B, Advanced German Third Year B and German Third Year B (Intermediate) were offered in the second semester.

- In addition, students opted for one of: *Fachsprachenforschung*; *Nationalismus II*; *Deutsche Erzählungen des 19. Jahrhunderts: Von der Romantik bis zum Naturalismus* (including Gotthelf's *Die schwarze Spinne*, von Droste-Hülshoff's *Die Judenbuche*, Keller's *Kleider machen Leute* and Hauptmann's *Bahnwärter Thiel*); and *Einführung in die Geschichte der deutschen Sprache*;
- Single semester courses at the third and fourth-year level in the second semester included 'Heinrich von Kleist's Prose Fiction', 'From Kant to Habermas: A Cultural History of German Thought', 'Germanic Languages' and 'Fourth Year Honours (Language)'; and
- For Honours students a 'German Honours Thesis' of between 10 000 and 12 000 words was required. All topics researched as part of graduate or postgraduate degrees in the 1980s and 1990s have been literary topics, as the other options offered have not been part of the undergraduate offerings long enough yet to bear fruit at the postgraduate level.⁶⁹⁰

In addition to the German courses offered, two interdepartmental courses, 'The Making of Modern Europe. Reason and the State', and 'Foreignness, Integration and Exclusion: Culture and Identity in Contemporary France and Germany', could be included in a student's programme of study.

Monash places particular emphasis on the development of international contacts and worldwide relationships between students and academics within the discipline (Clyne 1997: 123). The department regards its main task in the academic sense to be the teaching of language, literature, history and culture, contemporary issues plus German linguistics.⁶⁹¹ The teaching programme in 1998 reflects this philosophy in that it offers courses in all three areas. Language study is compulsory at all levels and an introductory course in German linguistics and a survey of German social and cultural history are compulsory for first-year students majoring in the discipline. A study of contemporary German literature and society or the German 'golden age' are compulsory for second and third-year students respectively. Third year students can also take a further course selected from options in literature, linguistics, Business German or culture. Fourth-year courses are selected from literature or linguistic theory courses.

Students can begin to specialise in their second year in German civilisation and culture, language in society in German-speaking countries and German literature. They could also enrol in interdisciplinary studies in the Centres of Comparative Literature and Cultural Studies, European Studies, Applied Linguistics and Women's Studies. German could also be taken as a major in a number of combined degrees, such as Arts and Law, Arts and

⁶⁹⁰ Cf. B. Donaldson (University of Melbourne), *Personal correspondence*, 11 May 1998.

⁶⁹¹ Cf. P. Thomson (Monash University), *Personal Correspondence*, 2 June 1998.

Engineering, Arts and Economics and Arts and Science. Monash also teaches a two-year course to Tourism and Communications students on a subsidiary campus.⁶⁹²

The annual highlight for some years now has been the *Deutsche Woche*, an intensive one-week programme of activities, play readings and performances and presentations by members of the public and students who have studied abroad designed to give students the opportunity to utilise and improve their German. Monash also offers a Languages Study Abroad Programme whereby (usually third-year level) students apply for grants to cover expenses except the airfare for a semester or shorter period of study at an approved institution in Germany. In 1997 the Department of German received 13 such grants. Courses undertaken in Germany can be credited towards a major in German at Monash.

Graduates can do a M.A. by research (thesis of 40 to 60 000 words) or by coursework and research (two courses and a 25 to 30 000 word thesis) and could specialise in literature and linguistics. The department also offered the M.A. Qualifying degree with a research component for students with B.A. degree. This programme includes composite courses in language studies and literature or linguistics, a research component in one of these two streams and two courses selected from a range of electives. Literature, culture, history of ideas, socio-linguistics, applied linguistics, general and historical linguistics and contemporary issues were researched as part of (post)graduate degrees in the 1980s and 1990s.

The department at the *University of New England* considered language, literature, history and culture and contemporary issues to come within the ambit of a German department in Australia, according to Dr Hermann Beyersdorf ((University of New England), *Personal correspondence*, 7 July 1998). However, the department's actual teaching programme during the 1990s reflects this 'mission' only to a limited extent as the teaching programme is increasingly language-oriented. Partially because of staffing cuts since 1993 (which saw the staff reduced from six (including a Professor) to just three) and partly due to student demand, the department has had to restrict itself more and more to 'core' language units.

In 1997 the courses in German were aimed at those students who have HSC level German and those who have no previous knowledge. A student going through the elementary stream and not taking the optional units in literature would have a major with almost no literature or culture (perhaps only two plays and a novel). Courses offered included 'Modern German Studies', 'Speaking, Comprehending and Writing German', 'German Language Studies' (including the close reading of a German prose text), 'Modern German Novel' (Böll, Grass, Th. Mann, Schriber, and Ch. Wolf), 'German Drama' (Brecht, Büchner, Kleist, Lessing and Zuckmayer) and 'German Poetry from Goethe to the Present'.

⁶⁹² Cf. <http://german.arts.monash.edu.au> (17 April 2001).

Honours candidates completed courses in translation, essay writing in German, conversation, stylistics and the literature component, which comprised a review of German literature from the classical period of the 18th century through to the present. Literature topics, such as Böll, Fontane, *Frauenliteratur*, Storm and (until 1995) Middle High German, were researched as part of graduate or postgraduate degrees during the past decade. By 1997 postgraduate study was available in a limited range of topics due to the staff cuts.⁶⁹³

During the 1990s most universities continued to offer programmes to beginners and those with HSC-level German from the B.A. through to the postgraduate level (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 36-38).⁶⁹⁴ Combined degrees in German and Commerce, Economics, Law, Science, Engineering, Education, Marketing and English, for example, were possible at least four universities. Some departments, such as WA, Melbourne, Sydney and Tasmania, offered a Diploma in Modern Languages (German) concurrently with other degrees from other disciplines. Interdisciplinary programmes in Comparative Literature, Migration, Medieval Studies, European Studies and German Studies were offered at the ANU, NSW, Macquarie, Monash, WA and the Queensland University of Technology. German was also offered as a subject for the B.A. (Community Languages) at Western Sydney and for the B.A. (international Studies) and B.A. (Cultural Studies) at Adelaide. The University of Southern Queensland introduced a full B.A. in German in 1997.

Most departments offered courses in language, literature, history and civilisation or culture as well as linguistics. Literary theory and area studies were taught by circa 40 percent of departments in the early 1990s while only Macquarie, Tasmania and Western Sydney offered courses in interpreting and translation (Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 220). The communicative approach to language learning was emphasised (Corkhill 1986: 178; Australian Advisory Council: 1991: 226, 230, 249). Several departments (such as Adelaide and Sydney) introduced courses for native or near-native speakers of German. Five departments, namely Adelaide, Melbourne, Monash, Queensland and WA were centres for *Goethe-Institut* examinations.

In addition to the universities, a number of other institutions offer German language courses at the tertiary level in Australia, including 38 TAFE. Adelaide TAFE, for instance, conducts courses and examinations for the *Goethe-Institut's* ZDaF and offers in-country experience through its 'German Intensive Language and Austrian Culture Course'. Studies show that 13

⁶⁹³ Cf. H. Beyersdorf (University of New England), *Personal Correspondence*, 7 July 1998.

⁶⁹⁴ Cf. Schmidt 1998: 473-474; <http://www.arts.uwa.edu.au/EuropeanWWW/GermanHome.html> (5 July 2001); <http://www.arts.adelaide.edu.au> (2 May 1998); <http://www.arts.usyd.edu.au/Arts/depts/german.html> (24 May 2001); http://www.utas.edu.au/docs/humsoc/modern_langs/german/info/intro.htm (24 May 2001); http://www.qut.edu.au/pubs/hbk_current/units/HU.html (24 May 2001); <http://www.usq.edu.au/faculty/arts/HUM&SOC/German.htm> (24 May 2001); <http://www.une.edu.au/~arts/German> (2 May 1998); <http://www.une.edu.au/arts/LCL/main.htm> (24 May 2001); <http://arts.anu.edu.au/LSSchool/german.htm> (2 May 1998); <http://www.arts.unsw.edu.au/languages/german/german.html> (24 May 2001); <http://www.uq.edu.au/departments/index/phtml> (24 May 2001).

percent of LOTE students at TAFE nationwide study German compared with 33.6 percent studying Japanese and 13.6 percent French. While some increases or steady demand for the 'hobby' or short-term courses was reported, six TAFE discontinued German courses in the early 1990s due to the increasing popularity of Asian languages and vocational courses (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 23-25; Djite 1994: 118-121). German is also offered at Institutes of Modern Languages and Continuing Education at universities, the *Goethe-Institut*, private language schools, distance education providers, community learning centres, centres for secondary school level or adult matriculation language study and by the Council of Adult Education.⁶⁹⁵

The *Goethe-Institut Inter Nationes* has two branches in Sydney (founded in 1974) and Melbourne (founded in 1972)⁶⁹⁶ and Goethe Societies exist in four other states.⁶⁹⁷ The *Goethe-Institut* aims to promote the German language and culture through diverse cultural events, German language courses and in-service or further training for teachers of German. The numbers taking the languages courses are relatively low in comparison with countries such as Korea and Japan, but their motivation for doing so is similar, that is, for business or employment purposes, according to Petersen (1993: 63). The institute also publishes the Australian journal for German teachers, *Szene*, and organises and funds professional development and academic seminars and conferences (Clyne 1974: 130; Booth-Whiting 1993: 86-103; Fink 1995: 35-37).⁶⁹⁸ The institute in Melbourne is responsible for the state of Victoria, SA, Tasmania and WA, but has faced cutbacks, particularly in library resources, in recent years (Kretzenbacher 1998: 19). One recent initiative of the institute in Melbourne has been the development of the network of German organisations on the internet (<http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network.htm> (23 May 2001)).

Five Australian States, namely NSW, Queensland, SA, Victoria and WA, have German language advisors and or consultants based at the Department of Education or at the LOTE Centre (<http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/advisers.htm> (23 May 2001)). There are also a number of licensed and authorised examiners (based mainly at the universities offering programmes in German) for examinations for the internationally recognised certificates and diplomas (*ZDaF*, *Zentrale Mittelstufenprüfung* (*ZMP*), *KDS*, *GDS*) in addition to the *Goethe-Institut Inter Nationes* in Melbourne and Sydney. The *Prüfung Wirtschaftsdeutsch* is also offered at the University of Queensland (<http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/exam.htm> (23 May 2001)).⁶⁹⁹

⁶⁹⁵ Cf. Mau 1983: 76-77, 115-119.

⁶⁹⁶ Until the late 1990s there was also a branch of the *Goethe-Institut* in Canberra. (Cf. <http://www.goethe.de/sydney> (23 May 2001); <http://www.goethe.de/melbourne> (23 May 2001).)

⁶⁹⁷ Cf. <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/goethe.htm> (23 May 2001).

⁶⁹⁸ Cf. Garrick 1976; Mau 1983: 108-115; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 61-62; Petersen 1993: 63; Schmidt 1998: 475; *Goethe-Institut* 1998.

⁶⁹⁹ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 62.

Scholarships are available from the Australian government and universities for Australian students to study abroad. In addition, the *DAAD*, the *Pädagogische Austauschdienst (PAD)* and the Austrian and Swiss governments offer circa ninety different scholarships and grants to Australian students and academics wishing to study in the German-speaking countries. Support is also given to the discipline in Australia by organisations, such as the *DAAD*, *Inter Nationes* and the *Alexander von Humboldt-Stiftung*, in form of books and funding for conferences. One priority area in cultural relations between the two countries is the cooperation between universities and the exchange of academics and graduates (Veit 1984: 7, 1988: 32-33; Booth-Whiting 1993: 86-103; Fink 1995: 35).⁷⁰⁰

Other German organisations represented in Australia include the German-Australian Chamber of Industry and Commerce, whose objective is to promote the two-way flow of goods, services and investment between Australia and Germany and which has over 550 member companies and a permanent staff of ten; churches, welfare organisations and religious societies such as hostels, hospitals, nursing homes and retirement villages; the Embassy of the FRG in Canberra and Consulate Generals or Honorary Consul in major cities in the other seven states; the German National Tourist Office in Sydney, the Australian German Association in Melbourne; the Association of German-speaking Communities of Victoria Inc. (AGSC) and the Western Australian German Business Association in Perth.⁷⁰¹

There are also a large number of German or German-speaking societies and clubs in Australia, particularly in those regions with historical links to German-speaking immigrants. These range from the Australian German Welfare Society Inc. in Strathfield, NSW, through the *Schützenclub* Illawarra, NSW, the Young German (Speaker's) in Sydney (YOGIS) Inc., the German-Austrian-Swiss Association FNQ Inc. in Cairns, Queensland, to the German *Karnival* Society in Geelong, Victoria (Fink 1995: 35-37). In addition, a number of radio programmes, television programmes and newspapers and magazines are produced or broadcast in German throughout Australia.⁷⁰²

II.4.4.3 Innovation and reorientation in the field of German during the past two decades.

The relatively healthy status of German (at least in some states or universities) can in part be attributed to the complex array of factors characterising the teaching and learning of German in Australia. These include the history of German in Australia as a language spoken by a substantial minority of the community and as a 'traditional' foreign language in education; the increasing prominence of German and Germany economically in Europe; the multifaceted

⁷⁰⁰ Cf. Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 49; Schulz 1990: 9-10; Ammon 1991d: 64-67; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 61-62, 122-125; <http://german.arts.monash.edu.au> (17 April 2001).

⁷⁰¹ Cf. <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/chamber.htm> (23 May 2001); <http://www.germany.org.au> (23 May 2001); <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/church.htm> (23 May 2001); <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/consul.htm> (23 May 2001); <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/tourist.htm> (23 May 2001); <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/organis.htm> (23 May 2001).

⁷⁰² Cf. <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/clubs.htm> (23 May 2001); <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/media.htm> (23 May 2001).

nature of the programmes which attracts students from a variety of disciplines and with a variety of motivations; the support of strong lobby groups promoting the language, and its recently introduced status as a priority language in all states except the NT (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 112).

Despite this, tertiary level German programmes have undergone significant changes during the past two decades both in spite of and because of considerable external pressures. Declining student enrolments in some departments and severe financial cuts have led to many departments finding themselves in difficult situations, even those departments where student numbers have increased such as Melbourne. Some chairs have been frozen or discontinued (down from fourteen to six between 1988 and 1995). Many language teaching staff have been employed on short-term contracts, and consequently course planning difficulties and low morale have occurred (Gassin 1992: 19-20; Stoljar 1993: 386-387, 1998: 111-113; Stephens 1995: 109).⁷⁰³

Many departments, however, have responded to these challenges and the changing student demand with new courses, such as Business German courses, German for special purposes, combined degrees, interpreting and translation programmes, teacher in-service courses, the promotion of study abroad programmes and summer schools and the inclusion of examinations for internationally recognised certificates and programmes in which German was a compulsory component (Veit 1988: 25, 1991: 377, 1999: 265-266; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 38-40; Petersen 1993: 61).⁷⁰⁴ These innovations, which began during the 1980s, were a direct response to the increasing popularity of Asian languages, the push towards vocational or market-oriented courses and an attempt to make the discipline more attractive overall.

One of the government's major reforms in the education sector during the 1990s was the linking of state funding provided to the number of students enrolled in a particular subject. This has meant small departments, such as German, have been forced to adapt to these changes. The more diverse course and subject offerings are a reflection of the reorientation by German departments at Australian universities (Rhie 1997d: 70):

Man hat erkannt, daß die Anforderungen in bezug auf den DaF-Unterricht diesen neuen Ansprüchen gerecht werden müssen. Die Anforderungen [...] heute ergeben sich aus dem Fremdsprachenunterricht an den Schulen, aus akademischen Neustrukturierungen und aus dem Arbeitsmarkt.

As with the Asian countries included in this study, the discipline in Australia has attempted to meet these challenges through various measures including:

⁷⁰³ Cf. Horst 1998: 663-664; Schmidt 1998: 471.

⁷⁰⁴ Cf. Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 91-95, 97-101; Mennicken 1988; Brändle 1988a: 44; Fischer 1992; <http://www.unimelb.edu.au/uninews/melbournesustains.html> (17 April 2001).

- The reorganisation of the administrative framework and the redefinition of the subject and or departments;
- The development of intercultural courses and programmes;
- The development of interdisciplinary courses and programmes; and
- The modernisation and diversification of language courses.

The reorganisation of the administrative framework and the redefinition of the subject and or departments has occurred in three main ways during the past two decades: (i) the amalgamation or incorporation of German departments and sections into larger administrative units, (ii) a change in the focus of the German courses or programmes offered, and (iii) the introduction or further development of Business German and other courses in German for specific purposes.

During the past two decades there has been a distinct move back to the larger departments or schools of European or Modern Languages, Literatures and Cultures. Presumably administrative rationalisation has been the overriding factor.⁷⁰⁵ One example of this is the amalgamation of the Germanic Studies Department at Melbourne with Russian in 1992 for administrative reasons into the Department of Germanic Studies and Russian. Further reorganisation occurred at Melbourne with the establishment in 1993 of the School of Languages comprising the departments of French and Italian Studies, Germanic Studies and Russian, Japanese and Chinese, Applied Linguistics and Language Studies and the Horwood Language Centre “in order to provide for greater interaction and sharing of expertise in the field of languages within the University” (Gassin 1992: 21-31). The School is charged with the provision of LOTE studies across the university and has a number of specific objectives, including increasing student participation across all faculties, supporting the training of primary and secondary language teachers and the development of new methods of language instruction including the use of computer and other modern media.

At the University of NSW the School of Modern Language Studies (the largest in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences) offers a wide range of programmes in diverse languages and cultures, including Chinese, French, German, Greek, Indonesian, Linguistics, Russian, Spanish and Latin American. The existing language schools and units amalgamated in 1995 to form the School and since then have been joined by the Linguistics Unit and the Centre for European Studies. The School also assumed administrative responsibility for the programmes in Comparative Development and European Studies in the late 1990s (L. Walker (University of NSW), *Personal correspondence*, June 1998).

⁷⁰⁵ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 36-38; Stoljar 1998: 110.

Another example of amalgamation is that of the University of New England, where German was part of the School of Modern Languages in the early 1990s, became part of the Department of European Languages and Cultures in 1996 and since then has become part of the School of Languages, Cultures and Linguistics!

In personal correspondence from several departments there is an indication that they would introduce courses in second language acquisition, teaching and learning, appoint a staff member fully trained in *DaF* and or linguistics and appoint staff to develop courses in cultural studies and multimedia resources if more resources were available. Those staff appointed would also have to contribute to other programmes offered by the department or the School or Faculty.⁷⁰⁶ These comments reflect the trend during the past two decades towards offering a variety of language courses and new kinds of cultural courses and are indicative of the changes in the focus of German courses offered during this period.⁷⁰⁷

Stoljar (1993: 387-389; 1998: 110) describes the introduction of new aspects into undergraduate courses, such as film and media studies, the arts and theatre, politics, history and the study of literature and language in context as the development of 'area' or 'German Studies'. These changes, aimed at increasing the attractiveness of German in Australia and to increase student satisfaction and interest, are unlikely to be reversed given the amalgamations or incorporation of German into larger units.⁷⁰⁸

At the University of Western Australia, for instance, the staffing levels in German were reduced in the early 1990s primarily as a result of the steady decrease in students studying German at school in WA. This led to a reduction in the funding and to the reduction and rationalisation of the German courses offered (P. Morgan (University of WA), *Personal correspondence*, 24 May 1998), including:

- A reduction in the number of classes and increased class sizes with a corresponding decrease in teaching time;
- A focus on language work before students tackle literature and cultural studies; and
- Increased emphasis on 20th century literature in the second and third years while the older literature and culture is taken in third year or honours.

These changes formed part of a significant change of orientation within the department in recent years, which included an increase in variety of offerings, an emphasis on language acquisition, the introduction of European Studies and the introduction of culture courses in English for language students. In the mid 1980s courses offered focused on the study of German language, literature and civilisation. The department now regards its priorities as (i)

⁷⁰⁶ Cf. R. Wilson (University of Southern Queensland), *Personal correspondence*, 15 July 1998; B. Donaldson (University of Melbourne), *Personal correspondence*, 11 May 1998; O. Reinhardt (University of New South Wales), *Personal correspondence*, 22 June 1998.

⁷⁰⁷ Cf. Cohen & Joy 1978: 40-42.

⁷⁰⁸ Cf. Schmidt 1998: 473.

contemporary written and spoken German language, (ii) contemporary German culture, including film and internet, and (iii) historical German culture, including literature and film. The teaching programme was redesigned in 1995 and 1996 to reflect this reorientation.

Students can now complete a major or honours sequence in German comprising integrated courses in advanced language and the detailed study of the literature, society and culture of the German-speaking countries. In year three courses in 'Specialist German' are offered comprising composition in German, translation into German, reading and aural comprehension, conversation and one topic of German literary history or linguistics (introduction to German linguistics or second-language acquisition) depending on staff availability and student demand. A course in 'Reading German' is offered subject to student demand and staff availability and is intended for students of any discipline who wish to be able to read German works in their own field of study. German Honours students focus on literature, social, cultural and historical studies or language acquisition and normally write a dissertation in German. Students whose primary interest is in German literature, culture and or society can study German together with European Studies at Honours level. This involves writing a dissertation in English on a topic from German literature, society, culture or history and taking seminars in German and or European Studies.

Other characteristics of the programme include the integration of cultural material on contemporary Germany, Austria and Switzerland into the language programme; a professional focus with courses in German for special purposes (Music, Sciences, Engineering and Law) and special units on German in the media and journalism (including the practical application of language skills in marketing of the theatre and in the departmental newsletter). All students were encouraged to participate in the annual three-week 'Language in Action' study tour to German speaking countries during the mid-year vacation.⁷⁰⁹

According to Dr Olaf Reinhardt ((University of NSW), *Personal correspondence*, 22 June 1998), the divergence of opinions in the department at the University of NSW about the main aims of the programme are symptomatic of the challenges German departments are experiencing.⁷¹⁰ This department has redefined itself several times during the past decade. In 1986 the courses consisted of core language and literature surveys based on selected texts (1770 to 1914 in second year and 1914 to 1986 in third year) plus options in linguistics, history, literature from the Middle Ages to the present, genre theory and philosophy depending on demand. In the late 1990s fluency in the language and cultural literacy are of primary importance. The department no longer regards itself "as basically teaching in part of the European tradition of great cultural figures", but rather more time and resources are devoted to language teaching. To some extent the offerings are now conditioned by a

⁷⁰⁹ Cf. <http://www.arts.uwa.edu.au/European/WWW/german/AboutDept.html> (5 July 2001).

⁷¹⁰ Cf. Schmidt 1998: 474.

smaller staff (four full-time and 1 part-time), smaller student numbers and a greater percentage of the students starting at the beginners' level.

German for Professional Purposes is, however, available to students in the Arts and Commerce Faculties who wish to develop business language skills. Business German students have the opportunity to undertake a work placement in the summer holidays with a German company (L. Walker (University of NSW), *Personal correspondence*, June 1998). The department has also been promoting the year abroad (partially funded by the University) and plan to phase it in as part of a four-year degree (O. Reinhardt (University of NSW), *Personal correspondence*, 22 June 1998):

This would enable us to pursue subjects at a higher level, since the language learning would have been greatly assisted. Ultimately, this would lead to the sort of diversity found at German universities (on a much tinier scale of course), but without the heavy emphasis on literature still (properly) prevailing there.

Programmes in Business German are currently offered at five universities, namely the Universities of Queensland, Tasmania, NSW and New England and Monash University, in direct response to the worldwide trend towards the internationalisation of trade and the demand for such vocational courses given the overall reforms in the tertiary sector (<http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network/universi.htm> (23 May 2001)).⁷¹¹ These are often aimed at students from other departments or disciplines and although numbers are relatively small, demand is expanding.

One such programme is the four-semester programme in Business German introduced at the University of Queensland in 1992, the only department offering a major in Business German (Jurgensen 1995: ix).⁷¹² The programme was introduced as part of a strategic decision to broaden the range of academic courses offered by the department to include vocationally oriented qualifications. An increasing number of students are coming from other business and management disciplines and from those already employed, who would not otherwise have studied German (Braunert 1993: 41, 43; Horst 1998: 664, 669). The success of this programme is due, according to Horst (1998: 664) to the practical orientation of the content, the communicative and interactive teaching methods and the opportunity to study and work in Germany during summer holidays.⁷¹³

Die enge Verbindung zwischen Universität und Wirtschaftswelt, durch zahlreiche Veranstaltungen von Vertretern beider Bereiche gemeinsam organisiert, ermöglicht den Studierenden, einen unmittelbaren Bezug zwischen Theorie und Praxis herzustellen.

⁷¹¹ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 38-40; Braunert 1993: 41.

⁷¹² Cf. Jurgensen & Corkhill 1988: xvi; <http://www.uq.edu.au/departments/index.phtml> (24 May 2001).

⁷¹³ Cf. Braunert 1993: 43-45.

The three most important aspects of the programme are the language skills, the subject specific content and the processes of intercultural communication, according to Horst (1998: 669), and that is why:

die integrative Betrachtung von Wirtschaftsdeutsch als Teil der German Studies neben anderen Bereichen wie Literatur, Philosophie und Geschichte, was letztenendes der Stabilisierung und Stärkung der Disziplin im Bewußtsein der Umgebung bzw. Öffentlichkeit zugute käme.

The optional three-month stay in Germany comprises a one-month intensive Business German and German-European business practices course at the Carl Duisberg Centre in Munich and a two-month placement in a German company (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 38-40). Students are prepared in this programme for the internationally recognised certificate, *Prüfung Wirtschaftsdeutsch International*, so the content and topics covered are determined by this and include business structures, international trade relations, financial management, banking and the stock exchange and the social market economy system (Braunert 1993: 45).

According to Lo Bianco *et al.* (1988: 5), many opportunities for language usage in business remain untapped because there are not enough opportunities to combine the study of German with a qualification in another field. Braunert and Mosler (1995: 122-127) contend that courses that include telephone skills, correspondence, negotiation skills, presentation of products, knowledge of market situation and economic trends, the commercial customs, business culture, customs and habits, the law, regulations and economic structures of Germany are required. These could be based on the *Prüfung Wirtschaftsdeutsch International* as at the University of Queensland.

There is clearly great demand for degree structures that combine languages and another (usually vocational) discipline to meet demands of a changing employment and international trade market.⁷¹⁴ Victoria's Languages Action Plan suggests the combining of languages with vocational elements such as professional qualifications in interpreting or translating or a combination with international law, for instance, as one possible innovation (Lo Bianco 1989 17). Further diversification into German for special purposes, such as business, science and technology and tourism, is another option as are the development and sale of materials for language teaching and the training of individuals in language-related professions (Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 113-118, 1989: 17). Clyne suggests the development of immersion courses in the vocational or specialist aspects because (1997: 128-129):

die Industrie sucht in erster Linie nicht Germanisten, sondern junge Leute mit umsetzbaren kognitiven Fähigkeiten und für sie nützlichen Fächern, dazu eine hohe Kompetenz in einer zweiten Sprache und Kultur.

⁷¹⁴ Cf. Veit 1988: 20-21; Lo Bianco *et al.* 1988: 103-111; Wabenhorst 1997.

One of the nine objectives of the *ALLP* in respect of LOTE was to increase “public awareness of the educational, social, cultural and vocational benefits of language learning, particularly in combination with other vocational skills.” (DEET 1991: 61) Veit (1988: 25-26) agrees that the discipline needs to “create the market by actively promoting our “product” in the public service, the business community and in industry.”⁷¹⁵

Veit (1991: 373-375) contends that intercultural literary studies have formed and continue to form the theoretical basis for the discipline in Australia, and he (1991: 377, 1999: 265-266) defines the increasing trend towards comparative European Studies with Germanistik component as intercultural studies, citing the example of Monash’s German programmes. According to Veit (1988: 16), although ***the development of intercultural courses or programmes*** may appear to be a move away from the traditional German programmes by some, it is:⁷¹⁶

not only an economic necessity to offer expert teaching outside the confines of traditional departments of German, it also has a sound basis in theory by promoting an Australian perspective on German speaking countries especially and Europe as a whole.

Veit (1991: 379, 1999: 268-269) calls for interdisciplinary, intercultural research into the phenomenon of multiculturalism in Germany and Australia as this is a pertinent question for both countries given recent developments. To further these developments and to research the intercultural aspects of these issues in particular, he also calls for the development of Europe and Australian research institutes in the different countries, such as the recently established Australian Institute at Potsdam University (Veit 1991: 380-381, 1999: 270).⁷¹⁷

The development of intercultural courses and programmes in Australia, however, has been limited. In addition, the definition of a number of courses and programmes as ‘intercultural’, when they are in fact primarily interdisciplinary in nature has blurred the line between these two developments somewhat.

The development of interdisciplinary courses and programmes, such as European Studies, has been a significant innovation within the discipline during the past two decades (Gassin 1992: 21-31; Rhie 1997d: 71-72).⁷¹⁸ According to Associate Professor Philip Thomson ((Monash University), *Personal correspondence*, 2 June 1998), “collaboration on interdisciplinary ventures (comparative literature and cultural studies, visual arts, history, women’s studies, European studies, etc.) is vital” if German Studies departments are not to be phased out in favour of outsourcing German language courses from less expensive providers.

⁷¹⁵ Cf. Lo Bianco 1989: 17.

⁷¹⁶ Cf. Veit 1991: 381.

⁷¹⁷ Cf. <http://www.newcastle.edu.au/depart/lg> (24 May 2001).

⁷¹⁸ Cf. Veit 1991: 373-375.

Morgan (1998: 117-118) describes the development of European Studies as a reflection of the dynamic situation in Europe in 1989, and of the need to diversify and adapt given decreased numbers of students, an increase in interest in Asian studies and the demand for more vocational courses. There are two kinds of European Studies programmes in Australia: (i) those born from forced amalgamations of small departments into Schools of European Languages or European Studies by the external pressures of decreased student enrolments and funding. These do not bode well for cooperative ventures and are often simply disparate course offerings with little in the way of “thematic coherence” (Morgan 1998:118-120). And (ii) proactive developments to “provide undergraduate students with an integrated and coherent understanding of ‘Europe’” *and* to address the current financial difficulties of Australian languages departments. These have led to cooperation between language departments and departments such as History, Political Science and Sociology. This collaboration has heightened the students from these departments’ awareness of the importance of languages and has broadened the approaches to teaching and research, including the increasing use of multimedia in language teaching.

Morgan (1998: 120-121) describes the latter type of European Studies programme as interdisciplinary and representative of:

a structural change within existing research and teaching as a result of changes in Europe as well as in Australian universities. It is not merely a change of nomenclature brought about by administrative rationalisation.

These programmes usually require students to take two or three years of language study and courses in history, philosophy or political science as well as literature (Stoljar 1998: 109). Current staff and postgraduate research in European Studies covers a broad range of historical, sociological, philosophical, literary and cultural studies, such as the European Union, racial debates and multiculturalism, the Balkan crisis, the collapse of communism, European film, language and identity in Europe.⁷¹⁹ The programmes are usually comparative in scope, however, as some do not require students to be proficient in German (or another European language) the research undertaken by many students tends to be “anchored in a single culture” according to Stoljar (1998: 110).

English is often the language of instruction, particularly at the undergraduate level, because one aim of these programmes is to attract more students as well as enable these subjects to be taught in an interdisciplinary manner. However, this lack of foreign language skills is the main threat to the teaching and research in European Studies in Australia, according to Morgan (1998: 121-123), as it is difficult to find the younger staff with linguistic competencies to teach.⁷²⁰ One partial solution to this might be common courses taught in English with tutorials in the different languages each week (Schmidt 1998: 473-474).

⁷¹⁹ Cf. Stoljar 1993: 389-391.

⁷²⁰ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 38-40; Horst 1998: 666.

The development of European Studies as a distinct field of Germanistik is supported by the Australian Association for European History, which hosts conferences biennially, the Contemporary European Studies Association of Australia, an interdisciplinary interest group based at Melbourne University with representatives and members throughout Australia, that publishes a newsletter and organises regular conferences and seminars.⁷²¹ In addition, the Centre for European Studies at the University of NSW was established in 1996 and organises a programme of public lectures, conferences and other activities as well as hosting an email newsletter and bulletin board, and the European Studies Centre at the University of Sydney publishes a newsletter and organises seminars (Morgan 1998: 124; <http://www.arts.unsw.edu.au/ces/> (24 May 2001)).

At the University of NSW, a Bachelor of Arts (European Studies) degree, designed as an integrated programme combining the study of European languages, European Studies and a social science discipline, was introduced during the mid 1990s. This programme is a reflection of the fact that while there is no question that Australia needs to intensify its relations with its Asia-Pacific neighbours, “the social, cultural and economic ties with Europe remain vital both to our own self-understanding and our future role in both regional and world affairs.” (L. Walker (University of NSW), *Personal correspondence*, June 1998). It also aims to enhance graduates’ employment options in both the private and public sectors. A student’s programme of study must include:

- At least 90 credit points (usually the equivalent of three undergraduate courses) in one of French, German, Modern Greek, Russian or Spanish;
- At least 90 credit points in one of the following social science subjects: Economic History, Economics, Geography, History, History and Philosophy of Science, Human Resources Management, Industrial Relations, Philosophy, Policy Studies (Social Science and Policy), Political Science, Science, Technology and Society, Sociology, Culture and Communication, Sociology and Social Anthropology;
- A major sequence in one of the languages or other disciplines listed above; and
- A major sequence in European Studies (which permits the substitution of Europe-related subjects in other Schools or Departments up to a total of 30 credit points), including courses on European integration, Central and Eastern Europe since 1989 and developments in divided Europe and Germany from 1945 to 1989.

Students can undertake Honours level study in any of the departments listed above or can undertake a Combined Honours programme with European Studies subject to the B.A. degree regulations. It is also faculty policy to encourage students to spend a period of study (approved as appropriate to the student’s overall programme of study) overseas. Stoljar (1998: 113-114) regards the increased importance placed on exchanges, study abroad and international links as a positive trend.

⁷²¹ Cf. Veit 1999: 269; <http://www.politics.unimelb.edu.au> (24 May 2001).

A major in European Studies as part of the B.A. degree or as part of the degree programme in European Studies (B.A. (European Studies)) was introduced at the University of WA in 1995. In the former, a European language is not required. In the latter, at least two years of a European language must be studied concurrently. The first-year units focus on the societies and cultures of contemporary Europe, are taught from an interdisciplinary perspective and provide a comparative framework for units on European history, politics, literature, languages and culture taught in various departments of the faculty. The units in years two and three deal with central aspects of European civilisation on the basis of literature, film, social theory and historical texts. These include, for example, 'Civilisation and Barbarism: The European Idea of Progress', 'Sex, Morality and Power: The Development of European Individualism', 'Imaginary Homelands: Race, Ethnicity and National Identity in European Culture' and 'Other Places, Other Times: Utopia, Imagination and Modernity in European Culture'. Fourth-year Honours courses in European Studies are also available. The introduction of this programme was part of a significant reorientation within the department and the School of European Languages at WA in recent years (P. Morgan (University of WA), *Personal correspondence*, 24 May 1998).⁷²²

The curriculum of the German department at Monash is different from European Studies programmes offered at other Australian universities, according to Veit (1988: 25, 1991: 377-378, 1999: 266-268), in that a student's programme of study must include at least one European language and culture. In the first year students are introduced to the foundations of contemporary Europe (including History, Politics, Philosophy, Literature and Economic Theory), European integration, East-West issues and industrial, political and cultural differences amongst other topics. The second-year course, 'Understanding Europe Today: Problems and Responses' discusses political, economic and intellectual developments in Europe since WWII. Third and fourth-year students specialise in one area of language, history, economic, politics or culture. Postgraduate level study includes a European language, a thesis, a core course on the European Economic Community and a variety of other options on political, economic and historical aspects of Europe. Most staff and postgraduate research is of an interdisciplinary or comparative nature with a particular focus on contemporary issues involving the German-speaking countries. The department has also been named an Austrian Centre in recognition of its special interest in the research and teaching of Austrian Studies (<http://german.arts.monash.edu.au>).

In recent years Melbourne University has introduced an interdepartmental European Studies programme (coordinated by the Department of Germanic and Swedish Studies) for postgraduate students with some European language training (although the programme

⁷²² Cf. <http://www.arts.uwa.edu.au/EuropeanWWW/es/UnderPost.html> (5 July 2001).

includes intermediate level language studies). The programme aims to ensure that postgraduates (<http://www.arts.unimelb.edu.au/courses/rags/handbook/disciplines/european.html> (17 April 2001)):

become skilled analysts of the processes and institutions that have formed the distinct cultural and political entity that is Europe. [...]

Postgraduates in European Studies will benefit from the flexibility and portability of the skill they will acquire and the broad career options available to them after graduation.

Students can specialise in contemporary European society and culture, the European Union and European fine arts within the programme. European Studies can be taken as a Graduate Certificate in Arts (European Studies) comprising four courses in one semester (of full-time study), or as a Graduate Diploma of Arts (European Studies) comprising eight courses in one year (one compulsory, a minimum of two with a “trans-national perspective” and a maximum of five with a “national perspective”). Selected courses taught by the departments of English, French, Political Science, Philosophy, History, French, Italian, Art History, Cinema Studies, German and Swedish may be included. European Studies may also be taken for a PhD.

Some within the discipline lament the fact that German literature (particularly in the original) as part of Germanistik is marginalised by the innovative programmes necessary to attract and retain student numbers. The study of German literature is still evident at the postgraduate level but fewer students are willing to invest the time and money into eight years of university study required to attain a PhD. Stephens (1995: 116) believes that:

in Zukunft werden anspruchsvolle Literaturkurse sicherlich nur einen bescheidenen Platz neben Landeskunde, Sozialgeschichte, angewandter Linguistik und Sprachunterricht im Rahmen von „German Studies“ einnehmen.

The modernisation and diversification of German languages courses during the past two decades has been a response to the constant increase in the demand for these. German departments have recognised the demand for German language courses is a market niche, which the departments could fill and had to fill if they wanted to survive. Rhie (1997d: 70) describes this change as follows:

Dem bisher von Literaturstudium beherrschten Fächerangebot wurde nun in verstärktem Maße der Unterricht der deutschen Sprache als sehr bald dominierende Komponente hinzugefügt.

There are now short intensive courses, beginners' courses, courses for advanced students and native or near-native speakers and courses for specific target groups, such as Business German and German for Scientists.

The employment market now demands linguistic competence in all aspects, cultural understanding, flexibility and the ability to adapt in the linguistic, economic and cultural areas (Rhie 1997d: 71). The increasing importance of employees trained in foreign languages is evident in the increasing number of vocational programmes in which foreign languages are taught. Because of the number and diversity of such language programmes, German courses can no longer be intuitively designed. An increasing number of teaching staff, whose training and interests are primarily in German literature, have undergone further (often informal) training (Rhie 1997d: 71):⁷²³

Sie informieren sich über Fremdsprachendidaktik, Methodik im Erwerb von Fremdsprachen, über Lern- und Lehrstrategien.

Because of this additional training in foreign languages didactics the teaching methods have become much more diverse. German is now taught through virtually every type of media, including writing, reading, singing, playing, theatre, video production, translation, television programmes and computer programmes. Some universities, such as Monash, Macquarie, Tasmania and the Queensland University of Technology, have introduced the use of multimedia and Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) into their language teaching programmes.⁷²⁴

Despite this schools and universities require more teaching staff who have a diverse range of teaching competencies and research interest, are flexible and at the same time (Rhie 1997d: 71):

sollen [sie] nicht nur deutsche Sprachkenntnisse vermitteln und die Fertigkeit, diese anzuwenden, sondern auch Allgemeinwissen, Verständnis für andere Kulturen und Gesellschaften [haben].

In Australia there are two teacher training pathways: a three-year degree in Education after secondary school or a one-year diploma in Education after a B.A. in German. Neither of these train teachers in *DaF* specifically although some departments do offer papers in this area (Corkhill 1986: 179-180; Petersen 1993: 62). Some initiatives to address the teacher training issues have been undertaken during recent years, including the upgrading of secondary LOTE teachers qualifications in Victoria in line with those of primary teachers (a three-year teacher training degree after Year 12 and certified language proficiency) since 1996.

Macquarie and Western Sydney universities now offer combined B.A. and Diploma of Education (DipEd) degrees, which include greater exposure to the classroom and the language during the DipEd training. The German department at Adelaide runs a Graduate Certificate in Language Education for primary and secondary teachers. Teachers

⁷²³ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 51.

⁷²⁴ Cf. Robinson 1970: 15; Morgan 1998: 120; Schmidt 1998: 475; <http://eurolang.mq.edu.au/german/unit.htm> (24 May 2001); <http://german.arts.monash.edu.au> (17 April 2001).

undertaking the course, comprising seven hours per week for one semester, can apply for time release scholarships provided by the Department of Education. The German Department at Queensland works with the Queensland Department of Education to provide a number of in-service courses, including intensive live-in courses in German language and LOTE methodology during the teaching recess. And during the semester two courses in LOTE methodology are conducted in German and are open to teachers (Fernandez *et al.* 1993b 38-40, 43-52; Tisdell 1999a).

One significant trend during the past two decades has been the dramatic increase in the number of beginners. At Monash enrolments in the beginners' courses during the 1980s overtook enrolments by those with matriculation or HSC German by over fifty percent (Veit 1988: 19, 23; Stoljar 1993: 386-387; P. Thomson (Monash University), *Personal correspondence*, 2 June 1998). Until the late 1960s only students with German skills could enrol in German at the tertiary level, but after the abolition of the foreign language requirement, beginners courses had to be introduced (Petersen 1993: 60). Mann (1992: 49-50) says that while universities in the past concentrated on literary studies in the target language, the current situation is different. In addition to having more students who have not studied a language before, the role of universities has been blurred by the diversification of tertiary level providers; the emphasis on short-term usefulness and the demands of employers that language graduates be proficient in the language studied. This has led on the one hand to greater emphasis on communicative competencies, and on the other to a complete change in the teaching methods and structure of programmes so as to allow those students enrolled at the beginners' level to go onto Honours at the third-year level with those enrolled in mainstream courses. At most universities two streams are offered: beginners and post-HSC, although NSW, for instance, has introduced a (near) native stream as well to avoid the problems of intimidation and mixed classes (although the line is never very clear given the great variety of programmes offered at school level). Some universities have also introduced diagnostic tests to help ascertain the entry level skills of students.

To meet these demands, a number of departments have concentrated or re-orientated their offerings towards language teaching. At Queensland University, for example, the teaching programme comprises 80 to 85 percent German language courses and 15 to 20 percent courses in German culture, literature, film and intercultural relations (Rhie 1997d: 70). At the University of Southern Queensland, the department (established in 1995) regards its main task in the academic sense to be the teaching and learning of language competencies through a content teaching approach involving the study of texts from and about German-speaking countries, the literature, history and culture as well as contemporary issues via newspapers and the internet, for instance (R. Wilson (University of Southern Queensland), *Personal correspondence*, 15 July 1998).

According to Gassin (1992: 20), the low status afforded to language teachers and increasing workloads and a lack of a language teaching research have discouraged some staff from undertaking research, particularly as the promotion criteria have tended to favour staff interested in literature and culture.⁷²⁵ To address these and other language related issues the faculty at Melbourne University has introduced policies aimed at strengthening languages and language teaching, which “reflect a new emphasis on language teaching while recognising the importance of literature, culture and related area studies.” These include (Gassin 1992: 21-31):

- An “openness towards diversification of language offerings and [...] an on-going commitment to the general university policy of internationalisation”;
- The installation of a multi-media computer laboratory in the Language Centre and workshops designed to introduce language teachers to various aspects of multi-media and CALL;⁷²⁶
- The creation of forty University of Melbourne Language Scholarships to encourage students to attain high levels of language proficiency;
- The development of increased numbers of exchange programmes with both Asian and European universities;
- The awarding of VCE bonus points to VCE students who obtain an average grade of D or above in a LOTE to encourage students to study a LOTE to VCE level and to continue it at the tertiary level;⁷²⁷
- The creation of a number of Graduate Diplomas in Modern Languages designed to meet the needs of university graduates who would like to study a language not included in their first degree. These usually consist of three years part-time study in the language commencing at the beginners level. However, the diplomas in German and Russian consist of a two-year sequence in the language and an area studies course. German and Russian can also be taken as intensive courses over summer, so the Graduate Diplomas in German and Russian may be studied full-time and completed in one year;⁷²⁸ and
- Teaching innovations and research including CALL being integrated into German courses for the teaching of grammar and research projects into the use of CALL in German.

Measures aimed at increasing the exposure to German that students have during their studies have been further developed during the past two decades and include the use of more German in classes, particularly at the Year 12 level, and the promotion of in-country study or work experience, exchange programmes, Study Abroad programmes and scholarships from the *DAAD* and *Goethe-Institut*. Some departments are even considering making a period of study abroad a compulsory component of their degree programmes. The

⁷²⁵ Cf. Schmidt 1998: 473.

⁷²⁶ Cf. McCarthy 1992.

⁷²⁷ Cf. Booth-Whiting 1993: 259.

⁷²⁸ Cf. Malcolm 1992.

National German Summer School offered by *Goethe-Institut* provides another opportunity for increased exposure to the language, as do the summer school programmes (intensive six week courses that can be credited towards students' degrees) offered by Melbourne and Monash. Some departments organise activities weeks that aim to offer student something of an immersion experience in the language, such as Monash's *Deutsche Woche*.⁷²⁹ At Adelaide students are encouraged to participate in the four-week German Summer School in Germany comprising an intensive language course at the Prolog Language School in Berlin and a cultural programme including lectures and activities such as visits to museums and sites of historical significance (<http://www.adelaide.edu.au/cesagl/germhb.html> (24 May 2001)). However, the lack of commitment and support from the Australian government must be reconsidered given the investment in Asian language scholarships in recent years.

Other innovations or developments suggested for the future teaching and learning of German in Australia include:⁷³⁰

- The learning of LOTE should become a mandatory part of general education for all children;
- Primary level curricula should be developed for the priority languages to assist with the transition from primary to secondary level language learning;
- Universities should introduce the system of adding five bonus points to the TES for any student who studies a foreign language up to and including Year 12 and these should be recognised by all faculties;
- The scaling and assessment procedures be re-examined so that the misconceptions regarding these can be eliminated;
- The Commonwealth and state governments and school directors must help to raise the profile of the German language in the public arena through increased media coverage as parents and students need to be aware of the usefulness of German to Australians;
- Links and exchanges with German-speaking countries need to be developed and promoted at all levels; and
- A component on the German language history, maintenance, its status as a community language in Australia and other aspects (such as the linguistic background and skills of students studying German and the potential language and cultural resources provided by the local German-speaking community) be included in tertiary level German studies.

Kretzenbacher (1998: 6, 13-15) suggests there should be further interface between the schools and the tertiary institutions offering German programmes, such as Monash University's work with the Bayswater South Primary School German Bilingual Programme

⁷²⁹ Cf. Mann 1992: 52-65; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 40-42.

⁷³⁰ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: xi, 97-100; Booth-Whiting 1993: 272-274; P. Thomson (Monash University), *Personal correspondence*, 2 June 1998.

and Professor Thomson's contributions as convenor of the LOTE Key Learning Area Committee in the Victorian Board of Studies. He also suggests there be intensive feedback between teachers and researchers, ongoing professional development programmes facilitated by the *Goethe-Institut* and several universities and cooperation between the German departments and the German language consultants. Kretzenbacher believes this cooperation is needed (i) to rework the curricular framework so as to ensure transition and continuity between the secondary and tertiary level German programmes, and (ii) to ensure that knowledge about teaching materials and methods relevant to the teaching of German are taught in the departments of German as there is little training specific to the methodology of language teaching included in the DipEd programme. He contends that a more attractive and effective curricular framework for teaching German in schools may motivate students to continue with German up to matriculation level and at the tertiary level. Given the atmosphere of fierce competition between departments in universities with shrinking budgets, an increased supply of students may in the long run help to keep German departments at Australian universities off the list of endangered species (Kretzenbacher 1998: 14).⁷³¹

In recent years those within the discipline in Australia have organised several conferences to discuss the challenges and issues facing the discipline and to exchange ideas and solutions to these. The conference, *Deutsch unter Druck? Lernzielbestimmung Deutsch als Fremdsprache an Hochschulen Australiens und Neuseelands unter Berücksichtigung von Erfahrung aus anderen Ländern der asiatisch-pazifischen Region*, was hosted by the Department of German and Russian Studies at the University of NSW in October 1996 (Rhie 1997d; Horst 1998: 665; Schmidt 1998: 470). Another, *The Future of German Studies – German Studies of the Future*, held at Melbourne University in July 1999 considered questions such as "What does the future hold for German Studies? What will be the shape of research and teaching in the next decade? What will be the challenges, what will be the opportunities? Will there be an emergence of new fields or new methods? [...] How will German Studies use media technology for research and teaching? [...] And finally, where should university based German Studies collaborate and share an interest with cultural institutes responsible for adult education?" (<http://www.german.arts.monash.edu.au/deptinfo-2-1.html> (16 June 1999); H. Kreutz (Monash University), *Personal correspondence*, 14 June 1999) This conference looked at Germanistik in Australia, New Zealand, the US, Austria and Germany and discussed Germanistik and European Studies, the transition from school to university, linguistics, language teaching and language curriculum, cinema and media studies. Another conference, *Teaching German – New Paradigms*, held in August 2001 aimed "to locate the paradigms of these changes where they become evident: in new curricula, in the challenge of using the new media in an effective way, in new textbooks and other materials supporting the learning process, in the schools that are venturing into the

⁷³¹ Cf. Mau 1983: 95-103.

new horizon of bilingual education in German and in Victoria as well as in new methods and learning scenarios." (<http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/lote2.htm> (23 May 2001))

These proactive exchanges of ideas and the innovations implemented by the Australian discipline during the past two decades have resulted in the discipline being relatively healthy and dynamic when compared, for instance, with that of Japan and Korea.

Part III. German Studies in New Zealand.

Part III. German Studies in New Zealand.

III.1 New Zealand's Socio-political Orientation and Education Reforms.

III.1.1 Political and economic re-orientation: "Asia first, but not first and last."⁷³²

Increasing integration of the global economy and rapid technological advances have changed the face of international trade during the past two decades. Significant characteristics of these changes include increasing foreign investment, widespread deregulation and liberalisation and the restructuring of markets and organisations. Associated with this has been the "emergence of geographically and economically distinct trading blocs in the pursuit of stable trading markets and mutual security." (Dale and Robertson 1997: 210) The increasing economic activity of the regional economic blocs (particularly Europe, North America and East Asia), rapid growth in the newly industrialised countries (such as Singapore, South Korea and Mexico) and changes in political spheres (such as the collapse of communism) have also influenced international trade patterns in recent years.⁷³³

With only circa 0.3 percent of world trade, New Zealand, like Australia, is particularly vulnerable to the impact of the changing relativities of power and influence ensuing from the globalisation process. New Zealand's trading base has "traditionally been narrow with a high degree of dependence on a limited range of commodities and overseas markets, in particular the United Kingdom and Australia." (Akoorie *et al.* 1993: 22) New Zealand has, therefore, been vulnerable to changes in the world economy "because of its location, the size of its internal market and the fact that it has been a 'price taker' rather than a 'price maker' for most of its (largely primary) products and exports" (Dale and Robertson 1997: 209). Other factors that meant that New Zealand was dependent on others in relation to trade included prices set by trading partners to protect their own products, access arrangements reliant on political negotiations, New Zealand's limited leverage in these negotiations, unsustainable returns and the largely uncompetitive and relatively small manufacturing sector (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade 1993: 14-15).

During the past 30 years, however, the direction of New Zealand's trading relations has changed.⁷³⁴ Along with Australia, New Zealand has consciously broken with its previously eurocentric orientation and positioned itself as part of the Asia-Pacific region: as a partner with the (then) rapidly expanding economies of South East Asia (including Japan, China and Korea) and Latin America, and as a continued partner of the North American economies (Knüfermann 1998a: 477).⁷³⁵ New Zealand's national identity has also changed to include a

⁷³² Cf. Ministry of Foreign Affairs & Trade 1993: 82.

⁷³³ Cf. Crocombe *et al.* 1991: 46; Enderwick & Akoorie 1996: 46.

⁷³⁴ Cf. Statistics New Zealand 2000b.

⁷³⁵ Cf. Piening 1997: 163-165; Woolcott 1997: 4.

growing awareness of the Asian-Pacific societies. At the same time the Asian economies have become a major centre of world trade and economic dynamism (Levett and Adams 1987: 1).

This re-orientation accelerated after 1973 when the UK, then New Zealand's largest trading partner, joined the European Economic Community (EEC). New Zealand, partly in direct response to this and partly as a deliberate government policy from 1984 onwards, began to diversify both its markets and its export products (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade 1993: 15). By the mid 1980s, Ricketts (1990: 7, 9) argues, "the prevailing wisdom in Wellington was that Europe ranked low in New Zealand's priorities." In 1986, the then Minister of Foreign Affairs stated that (Judd 1986: 9):

in political terms the relationships that are now most vital for us are those with the nations of the Pacific Basin. In strategic and defence terms our concerns are not so much with the balance of power in Europe, but the security of friends and allies in the Pacific.

The pivotal elements of the Labour government's economic reforms included rigid anti-inflationary monetary policies, lower government expenditure, floating the New Zealand exchange rate and micro-economic policies stressing the liberalisation of the domestic market. This led to the deregulation of the financial, transport and telecommunication sectors and of the labour market, the liberalisation of foreign trade, changes in the taxation system, the privatisation and reforms of the public sector, and the reduction of government expenditure on public services and the welfare system (Enderwick and Akoorie 1996: 72; WTO 1996: 20; Olssen and Matthews 1997: 15-16). These policies embodied the principles of competition, deregulation, privatisation and what is referred to as the 'free market' restructuring (Dale and Robertson 1997: 210).

The reform of the public sector was based on a number of principles, including the assumption that the "State should not be involved in activities that would be more efficiently and effectively performed by the community or by private business", that public sector enterprises would operate "most efficiently and effectively if structured along the lines of private sector business" and that the government's expenditure should "be based on real market factors, and the quality, quantity and costs of products should be determined by purchasers' requirements" (WTO 1996: 21). The reform process was "embedded in a programme of structural reform that was supported by disciplined macroeconomic policies" (WTO 1996: 20) and was a direct response to the relatively poor economic performance of the New Zealand economy during the previous three decades and in particular to the high rate of inflation, the fiscal and trade deficits and the burgeoning external debt in the early 1980s and the high rate of regulation in the domestic economy (Enderwick and Akoorie 1996: 73-74).

The diversification of New Zealand's products and markets resulted in a dramatic decrease in bilateral trade with the UK. In 1960 the UK took 53 percent of New Zealand's total exports while in 1992 it took only 6.5 percent (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade 1993: 15-16).⁷³⁶ A similar trend is evident in the import sector. The government's view during the 1990s is clear from the *New Zealand Trade Policy* document (1993: 80): "There is now a strong consensus in political, business, official and research circles: New Zealand's best economic prospects are in Asia." In 1993, for example, the developing economies of Asia and Japan accounted for 35 percent of New Zealand's total exports as compared to only 14 percent in 1970. In order to ensure these opportunities were (and continue to be) converted into business and political reality, the government launched a number of initiatives, such as 'Asia 2000', which is aimed at increasing political, economic and cultural relations with Asia (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade 1993: 80).

The diversification of New Zealand's trading base and the products and services exported, the internationalisation and the deregulation of the New Zealand economy and the expansion of the economy through increased focus on the service sectors, such as tourism, have all contributed to the New Zealand economy becoming one of the most open, market-oriented economies in the world, compared to its previous status as one of the most protected (Enderwick and Akoorie 1996: 82). Tourism is now New Zealand's "single largest source of export revenue, accounting for some 18 percent of total foreign exchange earnings" or approximately 6 percent of GDP (WTO 1996: 112). In the year ended December 2000 international visitors spent NZ\$ 4.7 billion, an increase of 22.4 percent on 1999.⁷³⁷

The results of these reforms became clear during the 1990s, with significant real economic growth in the five years from 1991 to 1996 (which has since slowed again), a low annual inflation rate of approximately 2 percent for the same period, increased export earnings, especially in non-commodity exports, a lower unemployment rate (although this has been changeable) and a drop in the level of public debt (WTO 1996: 148). Considerable international interest has been shown in New Zealand's reform process.

These reforms and the internationalisation of the New Zealand economy have, of course, not been without costs. The most significant of which are the number of businesses, which have subsequently failed and the number of employees who have been made redundant or 'retrenched' during the process (Enderwick and Akoorie 1996: 75).

⁷³⁶ Cf. Piening 1997: 163-165.

⁷³⁷ Cf. Statistics New Zealand 2000a; Tourism New Zealand 1999, 2000b, 2000c; <http://www.tourisminfo.govt.nz/documents/NZTNAAnnualReport.pdf> (16 March 2001).

Reforms are continuing in many sectors of the economy, a process intended to ensure that New Zealand continues to meet the challenges and take advantage of the opportunities of an increasingly globalised economy (WTO 1996: 148). Enderwick and Akoorie (1996:82) conclude that “continuing change is likely to be a fact of business life” in New Zealand and internationally well into the twenty-first century. Woolcott (1997: 2) too believes that the changing relativities of power and influence which originate from the economic upsurge of East Asia and the globalisation of the international economy will continue to impact on New Zealand’s economic standing and policies.

New Zealand’s own trade policy (1993: 27) states that an “effective trade policy for New Zealand needs to be responsive to shifts” in both the national and international economies as New Zealand businesses operate in an increasingly global environment, an environment that includes Europe as a major trading partner. The policy continues on to say that (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade 1993: 81-82):

an Asia-first focus does not mean New Zealand companies or the Government can disengage from Europe, North America or any region. There is substantial existing trade and further identifiable opportunities in regions other than Asia; Europe is a growth market for individual New Zealand industries, both traditional and non-traditional. [...] while we thus maintain a global approach, some prioritisation is unavoidable. In terms of our resources, Asia is clearly the priority region. Ours strategic focus is thus ‘Asia first, but not Asia first and last’.

It would appear, however, that recent governments have tended to forget this as they have promoted the diversification of New Zealand’s political and economic orientation solely towards Asia and Pacific, at the expense of Europe. The 1998 economic and political instability in Asia (and subsequently internationally) should serve as an example of the dangers of a narrow political and economic orientation and of an entirely market-driven society, as the market and its demands are apt to quickly change, particularly given the increasing global interdependency.

New Zealand, therefore, cannot afford to ignore potential opportunities the EU presents. The EU, with its 15 member states and approximately 350 million citizens, was the leading world exporter in 1998, accounting for 19.2 percent of world exports while in imports it ranked second after the US with 17.7 percent.⁷³⁸ It is, therefore, a market with immense and diverse potential.⁷³⁹ The impression that New Zealand has completely turned away from Britain and Europe as trading partners is not an accurate reflection of the situation. The trading relationship remains strong with the bilateral merchandise trade in the 1996/1997 June year amounting to NZ\$ 7.4 billion or 18.1 percent of New Zealand’s global trade, making the EU New Zealand’s second largest trading partner after Australia, in both exports and imports.

⁷³⁸ Japan’s share of world exports and imports were 9.2 percent and 6.3 percent respectively (European Community 1999: 14).

⁷³⁹ Cf. Morgan 1991; Wabenhorst 1997.

For instance, in the 1996/1997 year the EU took with NZ\$ 3.4 billion or 16.3 percent of New Zealand's exports and supplied imports worth NZ\$ 3.9 billion, which comprised 20 percent of New Zealand's total imports. In 1999 the EU took circa 17 percent of New Zealand's total exports (Ricketts 1990: 10-12; Delegation European Communities 1996: 1; <http://www.mfat.govt.nz/foreign/regions/Europe/overview.html> (3 April 2001)).⁷⁴⁰ The UK remains New Zealand's fourth largest export market and the sixth largest source of imports (Statistics New Zealand 2000b).

Merchandise trade is only one aspect of this economic partnership, and while little data is available on the bilateral trade in services, as at 31 March 1996, the EU accounted for 16.1 percent of foreign direct investment in New Zealand, the third largest foreign direct investor after Australia and the US.⁷⁴¹

Despite the government's apparent orientation towards the Asian and Pacific markets the growing depth of New Zealand-EU relations is reflected in the range of bilateral agreements that exist or are being negotiated. These include a Wine Agreement (providing, for example, reciprocal protection of wine names and wine-making practices), a Mutual Recognition Agreement on Conformity Assessment (to reduce the technical barriers to trade), a Veterinary Agreement (to facilitate the meat products trade), a Fisheries Agreement (to facilitate the establishment of commercial partnerships between the EU and third country fishing operators) the Asia-Europe Dialogue, the reform of the Common Agricultural Policy and the Market Access Strategy (Delegation European Communities 1996: 4-6; NZ Institute Internal Affairs 1996: 6).⁷⁴²

The implications, however, of the political and economic re-orientation of the nation go far beyond trade, as the government has sought to "redefine its identity in terms of a new pole of political and economic growth and power: the 'Asia-Pacific'." (Dale and Robertson 1997: 213) Part of the Asia 2000 programme initiated by the government includes encouraging "literacy in Asian languages, promoting and dissemination research and coordinating business, academic and government activities" (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade 1993: 80).

Another example of the government's reorientation of New Zealand's identity is the shift in focus of its immigration policy. The immigration of wealthy business migrants from Asian countries, in particular, was extensively promoted in the late 1980s and early 1990s by both the Labour and the subsequent National governments. In 1995, approximately 60 percent of the 54 800 immigrants to New Zealand originated from Asian countries (Knüfermann 1998a: 478; Dale and Robertson 1997: 215).

⁷⁴⁰ Cf. Delegation of the European Commission to Australia (Canberra), *Personal correspondence*, 18 August 1997.

⁷⁴¹ Cf. Delegation of the European Commission to Australia (Canberra), *Personal correspondence*, 18 August 1997.

⁷⁴² Cf. Piening 1997: 164-165; <http://www.mfat.govt.nz/foreign/regions/Europe/overview.html> (3 April 2001).

There have also been significant changes in the ethnic nature of New Zealand's population since 1986. While the total population has increased by 10.9 percent between 1986 and 1996, the number of people who identify themselves as European has dropped from 81.2 percent to 71.7 percent. The proportion of people who identify themselves as New Zealand Maori has increased from 12.4 percent to 14.5 percent. Pacific Island groups have increased from 3.7 percent in 1986 to 4.8 percent in 1996. However, the most dramatic increase has been in those identifying themselves as Asian, up from 1.5 percent in 1986 to 4.4 percent in 1996.⁷⁴³ The increased ethnic diversity of the New Zealand population is also reflected in the decline in the proportion of the population belonging to only one ethnic group (Statistics NZ 1998c: 15).

Public sector reforms, such as reduced expenditure on welfare benefits, targeting of social assistance and restructuring of the way in which the state provides such support (for instance in the housing, health and education sectors) have been justified primarily by the need for tight fiscal policy due to high external debt" (Peters 1997: 242-243). However, these reforms also "reflect a fundamental shift in political philosophy [...] a shift from a social democratic philosophy [...] to a philosophy which emphasises individual responsibility within a free-market economy and thereby defends the notion of a minimal state on moral as well as efficiency grounds (Peters 1997: 234). The rapid and comprehensive reform of the public sector and the government's desire to have the public sector behave like private enterprise was unprecedented worldwide. Key concepts which pervaded the reforms in all sectors included competition, choice and responsiveness to clients, delegated authority, accountability, freedom from regulated controls, effectiveness, efficiency, productivity and the monitoring and reporting of performance (Division of Planning 1989: 4).

Three major pieces of legislation were part of the public sector reform process: the State-Owned Enterprises Act 1986 (which allowed the corporatisation and privatisation of the commercially oriented government departments and services), the State Sector Act 1998 (which essentially devolved decisions about the employment regime within government departments to the heads of departments as opposed to the Ministers) and the Public Finance Act 1989 (which addressed the legal framework for the reform of the financial management of government operations) (Division of Planning 1989: 4-5). No government department or service was excluded from the reform process: from trading operations, transportation and telecommunications, the Development Finance Corporation through to the health and education sectors.

⁷⁴³ Cf. Piening 1997: 163-165.

III.1.2 Reforms in the education sector.

The past decade of rapid and comprehensive political, economic and public sector reforms has brought dramatic reforms in the education sector.⁷⁴⁴ These have had major implications for primary, secondary and tertiary level educational institutions and for the role they fulfil in “a society with a more internationalised market orientation and with an emphasis upon the need for more rapid adaptation.” (NZVCC 1997: 2) In 1997 the OECD (1997: 5) described the New Zealand education sector as being in a dynamic phase as a result of these reforms and the wider social, economic and political changes. The review group went on to say that the reforms involved (OECD 1997: 7):

far-reaching structural and organisational changes in a sustained effort to devolve operational decision making to individual institutions and to increase overall efficiency [...] within a strongly defined and firmly controlled national framework which sets goals, defines standards and presents accountability procedures.

The new Labour government in 1984 was faced with a poor economic situation and responded by advocating and subsequently implementing radical free market reforms. Treasury’s *Economic Management: Brief to the Incoming Government* argued that increased spending on education would not necessarily improve educational standards or ensure equality of opportunity or economic performance. The report concluded that education should be analysed in a similar way to any other service, that accountability within the sector was required and government intervention and control had interrupted the free market forces and given rise to inefficiencies (Olssen and Matthews 1997: 11-12).⁷⁴⁵

Reforms in the education sector were implemented against the backdrop of a number of comprehensive reviews completed in the 1980s and early 1990s, including *The Curriculum Review* (1987), *Upgrading New Zealand’s Competitive Advantage* (1991), *The Administering for Excellence* or *Picot Report* (1988) and *Tomorrow’s Schools* (1988) and a number of reports on the tertiary sector, such as *The Report of the Working Group on Post Compulsory Education And Training* (1988) and *Learning for Life* (1989). These reviews all concluded that the New Zealand education system operated in a “context of rapid social and economic change” (Ministry of Education 1993: 28).

These reports and the subsequent reforms mirrored the principles of the political, economic and public sectors reforms. These included an increased flexibility and responsiveness to client needs (by placing schools under the control of their local communities), devolution of decision making and control of resources to the institutional level, accountability to the public and the government, achievement of national objectives, competition and ‘market-driven’ choice, particularly at the primary and secondary levels (including the participation of private providers), the introduction of ‘user pays’ at the tertiary level, equality and equity issues

⁷⁴⁴ See Appendix Five for an outline of the New Zealand education system.

⁷⁴⁵ The same applied to other social services, such as health.

including the emphasis on bilingual educational opportunities and “savings through increased efficiency” (Division of Planning 1989: 9-10).⁷⁴⁶

The education sector was to be modelled on private enterprise and the buzz words common to management and the business sector: namely ‘efficiency’, ‘choice’, ‘competition’ ‘devolution’ and ‘accountability’. The reform of education in New Zealand as in Australia and Korea (to a lesser degree), therefore, reflected the trend towards the marketisation of education, the definition of education in management terms and the fundamental changes which were occurring (and continue to occur) in the political and economic sectors (Butterworth and Tarling 1994: 63-66).

Factors impacting on the education sector in general at the time included demographic changes, some alarming social trends (such as New Zealand’s high rate of teenage suicide and the increased rate of reported violent crime), gender and cultural issues, major technological developments, environmental concerns, the deregulation of and changes in the composition of the labour market, growth in the service sector, new production methods and the complexities and competitiveness of the changing international economy.⁷⁴⁷

Demographic factors impacting in particular on the educational environment included (and continue to include) a steady growth in the population, an aging population with increasing numbers of older people returning to university to (re)train, the increasing population of the Auckland, Waikato and Bay of Plenty regions and the changing ethnic mix of the population (with immigration being the largest contributing factor to this trend) (Fogelberg 1993: 2-3; 1996: 5; Pool 1987: 25-29).

Government justified the shift towards the ‘user pays’ system on the advice of Treasury, which argued that greater use of market processes in the provision of tertiary education (in particular) and the participation of private providers would improve the sector’s responsiveness to consumer demand (Butterworth and Tarling 1994: 76). The government also promoted the notion that the benefits an individual gains from tertiary education are such that the question must be asked why the taxpayers should pay such a high percentage of the costs (Butterworth and Tarling 1994: 88).

Not only do these reforms reflect a trend towards a more open and competitive environment, both in the education sector and the wider economy, they also parallel reform processes and a shift towards the marketisation of education in other countries, such as Australia and the UK and in a number of Asian countries (as my research has shown) (Kerr 1996: 2-3; Butterworth and Tarling 1994: 243).

⁷⁴⁶ Cf. Olssen & Matthews 1997: 16-19, Butterworth & Butterworth 1998: 21-31.

⁷⁴⁷ Many of these factors continue to impact on the education sector today.

Kerr (1996: 3) found that common themes have emerged internationally in relation to higher education during the past decade, including debate as to whether private (as opposed to state) contributions should be increased to reflect private versus public benefits obtained from higher education. Other common themes include the increasing demands by government and the public for more accountability and efficiency in the education sector; more competition for students (both international and domestic) between universities and from other tertiary education institutions; the significant impact of wider economic reforms; changes in the working, teaching and learning environments rendered by new information technology and commercial practices; increasing participation rates and the changing nature of the student population and increased competition for research funding.⁷⁴⁸

The most significant changes for schools in New Zealand during the reform process included the devolution of the control of resources to the local school communities, the governance of schools by elected Boards of Trustees⁷⁴⁹ that work closely with the principal and parents, the formulation of school charters consistent with national guidelines yet which reflect the needs of the local communities, the need for schools to purchase services from formula-based grants, discretionary grants and locally raised funds and the establishment of the Ministry of Education and various other organisations to replace the Department of Education (Division of Planning 1989: 1-2).

One major change in direction within the whole educational sector is the “growing awareness of the bicultural identity of New Zealand society and its multicultural composition.” (Ministry of Education 1993: 27)⁷⁵⁰ The *New Zealand Curriculum Framework* (1993: 7) attempts to reflect the multicultural nature of New Zealand in that it aims to ensure “the experiences, cultural traditions, histories and languages of all New Zealanders are recognised and valued”. Universities, and other institutions, are required to fulfil their obligations under the *Treaty of Waitangi* with regards to promoting the full participation of Maori students and staff in all aspects of the institutions’ functioning (Fogelberg 1996: 6).

The National government continued these reforms during the early 1990s. They decreased the Equivalent Full-Time Student (EFTS) payments (which forced the universities to raise student fees),⁷⁵¹ introduced the student loans scheme to help students pay the increased fees and to compensate for the reduction in the availability of student allowances (due to

⁷⁴⁸ Cf. Robertson 1996: 10; Ministry of Education 1994b; Kerr 1996: 3; Fogelberg 1996; NZVCC 1997.

⁷⁴⁹ The role of the Boards of Trustees is to design and monitor the school’s purpose and basic values, to act as a two-way communication channel between the school and external community and organisations and to empower the principal (or Chief Executive Officer) to manage the school in order to achieve the purpose and objectives established by the Board (Butterworth & Butterworth 1998: 201).

⁷⁵⁰ Cf. Renwick 1979: 2-5.

⁷⁵¹ In New Zealand, as in Australia, an EFTS is the measure of calculation for funding a full-time tertiary student. Under the New Zealand system institutions are “granted funds to cater for students such that similar programmes and courses will attract the same grant per EFTS regardless of their status or individual idiosyncrasies; in other words, the bulk of institutional funding will be tied directly to student enrolments.” (Dixon *et al.* 1994: A-16.02) Each tertiary institution is funded according to the number of students it attracts by broad course category, although the overall budget is capped (Ministry of Education 1994b: 7).

means testing of parents' income) and implemented the concept of 'seamless education' (Butterworth and Tarling 1994: 249-250).

So-called 'seamless education' means the traditional barriers between schools and tertiary level education and training no longer exist. This system is designed so all courses of study lead to national qualifications, thus allowing secondary school students to combine regular school courses with tertiary level courses or with workplace training. The aim of this structural change in New Zealand's education system was to allow for lifelong learning by increasing the diversity and flexibility of the system (Ministry of Education 1994a: 6).

The OECD review of tertiary education (1997: 38) found that although tertiary sector participation rates in New Zealand have increased during the past two decades, "New Zealand is still short of a level of participation in tertiary studies that would match the ambitions of a knowledge-intensive, high skill economy". Countries such as Finland aim to have 60 to 65 percent of school-leavers continue onto some form of tertiary education early in the 21st century, while it is expected that New Zealand's participation rate will be approximately 36 percent. In 1987, a review commissioned by the New Zealand Vice-Chancellors' Committee, *New Zealand's Universities: Partners in National Development*, came to similar conclusions. This review recommended the introduction of policies aimed at increasing the participation rates of the 18 to 24 year-olds, increased resources and partnerships and collaboration between the education sector and other sectors, all of which the OECD (and various other reviews) a decade later again recommended (Butterworth and Tarling 1994: 101-102).

The so-called *Porter Project*, which exemplified New Zealand's preoccupation with economic rationalisation and productivity (Codd 1997: 132), found that part of New Zealand's economic problems in the 1980s stemmed from the low school retention rates in New Zealand as compared with other OECD countries, the short school year (190 days compared with 200 in Australia, 220 in Germany and 240 in Japan), the low participation of school-leavers in tertiary education and the general lack of investment in human resources in New Zealand (Crocrombe *et al.* 1991: 99-100).

Pool (1987: xv-xvi) is critical of the low rate of participation in tertiary education by the core group of 18 to 24 year olds.⁷⁵² He regards this as critical to New Zealand's further development and calls for an improvement in retention rates at secondary schools and an increase in the number of staff teaching at the university level. He (1987: 1) argues that the need for reform in the education system began in the early 1980s, but that the radical economic and political restructuring, the emphasis on public sector efficiency and the

⁷⁵² Cf. Sell 1999.

introduction of the 'user pays' ideology hastened the process. Pool believes the education system cannot simply be left to market forces (1987: 2):

Policies which are essentially laissez-faire will maintain a system which is not effective and will fail to produce sufficient skilled persons to meet labour requirements [...] there must instead be investment to increase secondary school retention rates and all aspects of university study.

Dixon, Coy and Tower (1994) explain the introduction in 1990 of the EFTS system of funding, which requires tertiary institutions to estimate their number of EFTS every year for each of the following three years. All courses are then classified into cost categories, each of which receives a different level of government funding.⁷⁵³ A major concern to universities has been the decline in real government funding per EFTS since the introduction of the system, while the number of students attending university has more than doubled during the period 1981 to 1994 (Fogelberg 1996: 5). According to Stephans (1997: 197-198), the number of funded EFTS places has risen by 22.7 percent from 114 109 in 1991 to 139 974 in 1995.

However, the government continued to cut tertiary funding by 1 percent per annum during the period 1994 to 1999 (Kerr 1996: 2; NZ Students Association 1996: 4; Ministry of Education 1994b). This despite the *Education for the 21st Century* document (1994a: 44-45) insisting that higher levels of government funding⁷⁵⁴ are required to finance the levels of participation in tertiary education necessary for New Zealand's labour market to "achieve the government's objectives of increased adaptability and productivity in [the] economy, and higher levels of economic growth and employment." Additional charges such as Accident Compensation Corporation levies, building insurance premiums and employee superannuation contributions have continued to increase, causing substantial increases in tuition fees and reductions in first year enrolments at some institutions (Stephans 1997: 191-192).

Prior to 1990 most New Zealand tertiary students paid minimal fees and the majority of full-time students received allowances to offset living costs. Since the introduction of tuition fees in 1990, students have increasingly paid higher fees (NZ Students Association 1996: 21-22). In 1990 students paid a standard tertiary fee of NZ\$ 1250 with subsidies to assist students from low-income backgrounds (Stephans 1997: 194-195). This system was then replaced in 1992 by a two-tiered system of tuition subsidies set at a proportion of the Ministry's estimated costs per course. Tertiary institutions were allowed to set their own fees and this has resulted in differences between the institutions and between course categories and disciplines (Stephans 1997: 197). Students currently pay tuition fees of between NZ\$ 2500 and 20 000 per year depending on their programme of study.

⁷⁵³ Changes to the system in the late 1990s continue to complexify the situation.

⁷⁵⁴ Overall government expenditure on education in relation to GDP increased from 4.8 percent in 1984 to 5.7 percent in 1990 and fell slightly to 5.6 percent in 1996 (Stephans 1997: 192).

The system of universal student allowances was also abolished and replaced with allowances targeted to parental income. The introduction of the student loan scheme allows most students to borrow money to fund their tertiary education. This is lent at the full market interest rate on a compounding basis from the date of the first draw down. However, the Labour government elected in 1999 has introduced a system whereby the annual interest cost of students' loans is wiped while they continue in fulltime study or are earning under circa NZ\$ 15 000. From 1999 onwards, it is estimated that students will be paying fees amounting (in official terms) to 25 percent of the cost of their courses, but many will be paying circa 28 percent of the cost in real terms. The increases in tuition fees have led to the need for universities to be more accountable, both in legal terms, and in particular, to their clients, the students, who constitute one of the only methods of obtaining additional funding (Dixon *et al.* 1994; Fogelberg 1996: 5-7).

According to Olssen and Matthews (1997: 23-26), there are a number of difficulties associated with applying the free market theory to education. These include the fact that consumer demand is not the same as social needs, the failure of the market to distribute resources equally and to protect democratic rights, the fact that the market encourages competition at the expense of cooperation, the fact that private schooling ignores the social benefits which public schooling provides and that individuals vary enormously in their ability to make choices based on the market forces. Another paradox in the whole reform process is that government education policies promote(d) (Olssen and Matthews 1997: 33):

increased participation in tertiary education as a public good in terms of national economic prosperity while at the same time explaining education as a private good, the payment for which increasingly is the responsibility of the individual student and among whom the 'returns' are subsequently inequitably distributed.

Graham and Susan Butterworth (1998: 152) found the reform process had been hampered by the very different parameters under which each of the levels of the education sector (early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary) operate. The primary and secondary sectors have been adversely affected by the application of market forces to the education sector. New Zealand schools, according to Gordon (1997: 66-67), have been left to adapt to and influence market forces without government intervention. The level of autonomy New Zealand schools enjoy exceeds that in many other countries and has allowed a quasi-market to develop. Because the system is based on the concept of 'parental choice' and schools are funded according to student numbers, schools must attract students to retain funding. This has resulted in polarisation of aspects of school life, such as the nature of school populations (wealthy middle-class European New Zealand students as opposed to Maori and Polynesian students from lower socio-economic communities, for example), resource allocations (including the level of donations made by parents), school rolls and the overall positioning of schools (Gordon 1997: 68-73).

The direct relationship between parental choice and a school's survival has led to the need for schools to market themselves in order to attract and or retain students. This phenomenon includes schools increasingly marketing themselves in the Asian market to attract full fee paying students (Gordon 1997: 75-78) and, thus, extra funding.

Other negative effects of the reform process on schools in New Zealand include the necessity for schools to achieve the basic educational requirements with a limited budget, the devolution of responsibility for resources and administrative decisions to largely volunteer Boards of Trustees, teachers and principals, the reliance of some schools on fee paying students for extra income and the overall re-orientation towards Asia in this process, which could have serious consequences if the slowing of growth in Asian markets continues (Dale and Robertson 1997: 220-222). Other problems include the need for continuity and training of the Boards of Trustees, the heavy administrative workload for principals and teachers, the continuing issue of bulk funding of schools by the government, the limited (and inadequate) resourcing of special education, school transport and maintenance and other property issues, and the failure of school self-management to eliminate the differences in educational opportunities and achievement amongst students (Butterworth and Butterworth 1998: 172, 182-183, 188-194, 203-204).

There have been positive aspects to the reform of schools in New Zealand, including the increased ability of schools to spend their funding as required, changes in the curriculum and in teaching methods, which have had a positive impact on the actual classroom, and the development of a partnership between teachers and parents (Gordon 1997: 79; Butterworth and Butterworth 1998: 203-204). A number of Maori educational opportunities have also been established in the process of reform, including an increased number of Kohanga Reo (or Maori language nests), Kura Kaupapa Maori (Maori language schools with the aim of producing bilingual pupils) and Whare Wananga (Maori-controlled tertiary institutions) (Butterworth and Butterworth 1998: 253). In addition, the school leaving age was raised to 16 in 1992 bringing New Zealand into line with other major OECD countries (Butterworth and Butterworth 1998: 188).

The changes in the schooling system in New Zealand have not yet been completely resolved as direct resourcing (or bulk funding) is still not completely implemented or accepted. Schools increasingly have to fundraise in order to have sufficient income, and the conflicting roles between the Boards of Trustees' administrative functions and their governance role is a further issue that has yet to be resolved (Butterworth and Butterworth 1998: 237-238).

Universities have gained an increased degree of autonomy in the course of the public sector reforms, in that they can use their funds at their discretion in order to achieve their objectives. They have autonomy in setting the level of tuition fees and negotiating staff salary levels. They have the ability to develop and introduce new programmes provided

these meet certain quality assurance criteria, and the Vice-Chancellors are now essentially the Chief Executives of the institutions (Fogelberg 1996: 5).

However, these changes have led to increased competition between the universities as they attempt to attract more students. According to Fogelberg (1996: 5-6), this trend is likely to continue. Universities have been forced to recruit international students, who pay much higher fees than the domestic students, to improve their budgets. Universities have had to develop a stronger student or 'client' focus as the increased costs and the need to finance these through the student loan scheme have led to students and families demanding satisfaction and quality of education.⁷⁵⁵ Universities have also had to ensure that their student advice, academic planning and implementation, doctoral supervision and quality of teaching resources meet the external criteria as laid down by the Academic Audit Unit, which was set up by the New Zealand Vice-Chancellors' Committee (NZVCC) to ensure independent control of academic processes.

While productive opportunities have arisen from the reform process, such as the increased autonomy of universities and increased student focus, the process has resulted in many problems, such as the under-funding of institutions and the increased need for academics to concern themselves with recruitment, budgetary and administrative issues which has led in turn to less time for research (Knüfermann 1998a: 479-480, 1998b: 273-274). In recent years, for instance, university staff to student ratios have declined from 15.7:1 in 1988 and 17.1:1 in 1989 to 18.5:1 in 1996, compared to 14.2:1 in Australian universities (Dixon *et al.* 1994: B-2.01; *VOTE* 1996: 27). The government has hailed this as an increase in productivity, but in reality this has placed "extreme pressure on staff, who are dealing with more students and a greatly increased administrative workload. At the same time staff are facing increased expectations from students who have paid high fees for their tuition." (NZ Students Association 1996: 27) Fogelberg (1996: 5) notes that there has also been an increase in the demand for (post)graduate level studies in some disciplines, reflecting the increased need in the employment market for higher level qualifications.

The pace and presentation (to the parties involved) of the reform process have created an instability in the tertiary sector. The OECD review (1996: 37), however, credits New Zealand institutions with having successfully met many of the challenges ensuing from the reforms, although it found that:⁷⁵⁶

the institutions are under great pressure to accommodate overall growth and field-specific variation in demand but with shrinking per capita subsidies and constrained budgets; to diversify programmes and courses in the face of changing needs of students and the community; to introduce structural managerialist innovations whilst maintaining a reasonable collegiate atmosphere; to improve the quality and relevance of curricula and teaching whilst raising research profiles. All of

⁷⁵⁵ Cf. Fogelberg 1996: 5; Knüfermann 1998a: 479-480.

⁷⁵⁶ Cf. Fogelberg 1996: 4.

this testifies to a dynamic and energetic tertiary education sector which is contributing, with improved efficiency, a key part of the base of New Zealand's economic, social and cultural development.

The OECD (1997: 37) warns care is needed “to ensure that there is no loss of quality in teaching and learning and no increase in the adoption of more impersonal methods with increasing numbers of students.” According to Butterworth and Tarling (1994: 227-228), the speed of the reforms did not take into account the complexities of the education sector and because the reforms emphasised procedure rather than purpose, a reduction in the quality of education provided has occurred.

Butterworth and Tarling (1994: 95-96) feel that the government had failed in many of the reforms to take account of the internationalised economy in which New Zealand operates. They found a number of paradoxes in the government's reforms, in particular, between the concept of decentralisation and devolution yet the retention of a highly centralised funding structure (Butterworth and Tarling 1994: 137). Others included the assumption that research and teaching were interdependent yet separate funding was proposed for each; the statement that University Councils must reflect the institutions' communities, yet the government reduced the size of the Councils (while the diversity of New Zealand's society is increasing), and the declaration that there be no barriers to entry, yet student fees have increased dramatically to compensate for decreased government funding.

Fogelberg (1996: 4) asks at what point will the reduction in funding cause the quality of tertiary education to suffer. He warns of the danger of the government's continued push for financial efficiency in the education sector and of measuring education only in terms of dollars. He (1996: 7) concludes that there is a real need to convince the government that “there is a clear trade-off between funding and quality.”

Reforms in the education sector have continued during the late 1990s, with the National government announcing further changes in the governance structure of institutions and funding of tertiary institutions, amongst other reform measures in late 1998.⁷⁵⁷ The election of a Labour/Alliance coalition government in late 1999 heralded further changes and policy reforms, including a change in the way schools and tertiary institutions are funded.⁷⁵⁸

⁷⁵⁷ Paradoxically, government is now promoting the replacement of University Councils with executive boards, several members of which would be government appointees. Direct government intervention would, therefore, increase and the universities' autonomy would be lessened (Knüfermann 1998a: 480).

⁷⁵⁸ Cf. Cassie December 1999: 1-2, October 2000: 3; Johnson 2000: 23-24; NZVCC 2000: 1-2; Rowe March 2000: 1.

III.2 Foreign Language Learning and Teaching in New Zealand.

III.2.1 Towards Language Diversity.

Historically the teaching and learning of foreign languages in New Zealand was justified by the assumption that “certain languages and the cultures they embodied were of central importance to the European civilisation of which New Zealand was a distant offshoot.” (Renwick 1980: 5)⁷⁵⁹ Foreign language competencies were a requirement for matriculation and entry to university. In 1944, however, the Thomas Report recommended that this requirement be abolished, thus removing the need for the teaching and learning of foreign languages in New Zealand schools (Renwick 1980: 6-7). At the same time English was growing in importance as *the* international *lingua franca*.

However, several changes within New Zealand were occurring, which meant that languages should have been becoming increasingly important, namely New Zealand's growing international trade and the diversification of this trade, the changing political and economic relations, the growing numbers of non English-speaking immigrants arriving in New Zealand and the revitalisation of the Maori language and culture, a fundamental aspect of the New Zealand national identity (Renwick 1980: 7-10; Levett and Adams 1987: 2.5).⁷⁶⁰

During the 1970s concern about foreign language learning and teaching led to two major reviews of foreign languages in the New Zealand education system: *Second Language Learning in New Zealand* (the Marshall Report) in 1976 and Bancroft's *Second Languages in New Zealand* in 1977. Neither of these took the changing geo-political situation in New Zealand and the implications of this for the teaching and learning of foreign languages in New Zealand into account (Levett and Adams 1987: 2.6-2.7). However, both called for the decline to be reversed and warned if this was not instigated at the official level “the consequences for the nation in the long term could be most serious.” (Bancroft 1976: v)

Marshall's report (1976: 14-19) found that the decline had no single cause but that contributing factors included the removal of the language prerequisite for university study, the influence of the universities and the language goals they considered important, a shift by many schools to a wider range of curriculum options and structural systems, as well as a move towards the non-streaming of classes, the resulting time-tabling difficulties imposed by this system and the perceived lack of employment and cultural opportunities for language students. Further reasons for the decline in the study of foreign languages at secondary schools in the 1970s would appear to be a reaction to the perceived linguistic and geographical situation of New Zealand and the failure of the education system to make the study of languages attractive and worthwhile (Honeyfield 1972: 12).

⁷⁵⁹ Cf. ERO 1994.

⁷⁶⁰ Cf. Knüfermann 1998b: 271-272.

In his 1976 paper, *A Case for French*, Bancroft (1976: Part 2, 3-4) called for a languages policy to be developed and argued that many countries had recognised foreign language learning was an essential part of the national educational programme. He continued (1976: Part 3, 1) that “two issues were involved, the use of language for geographical, political, commercial and touristic reasons on the one hand, and the use of language as an educational tool on the other.” He further maintained (1973: 44) that:

a massive programme involving the education of the general public towards the importance of second language learning in New Zealand needs to be undertaken as quickly as possible. There are an immense number of problems facing the modern language teacher in New Zealand, all of which [...] spring from an area of fundamental wrong thinking at the educational policy level, and it seems [...] that it is only when the general public is made aware of the importance of language learning that a correct order of priorities will be established and the problem resolved.

A common New Zealand assumption was and is that all people understand English or that all people should learn English. As Bancroft (1980: 5) and other researchers have found, monolingualism is a particular problem in English-speaking countries such as the UK, the US, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. By comparison with many non-English speaking countries, such as Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, France and Japan, New Zealand and other English-speaking countries place less emphasis on foreign language learning as a whole.⁷⁶¹

New Zealand was and is regarded as one of the most monolingual societies in the English-speaking world (McGregor and Williams 1991: xii).⁷⁶² The 1996 Census recorded that over 90 percent of New Zealand’s population speak English as their first language. The remaining ten percent speak a variety of languages, including Maori, Samoan, Cook Island Maori, German, Dutch, French, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Indian languages and Greek. Only approximately 470 000 people spoke two or more languages (Statistics NZ 1998a: 45-50). Add to that the fact that almost two thirds of all secondary school pupils do not learn a second language, not even Maori, the second official language of the country, and it is not hard to see why languages in New Zealand are afforded few resources (Geare 1997: 69-70).

Diversifying trade relations require language skills. Dunmore’s 1976 survey, *Foreign Languages and the New Zealand Exporter. A Reassessment*, found New Zealand exporting businesses were increasingly using languages other than English in their business dealings. The most important languages were French, Japanese, German, Spanish, Arabic and Chinese. Although English was (and is) the accepted international language of trade, the assumption that other languages were not needed, often led to misunderstandings, particularly in the field of technology and science. Dunmore also found that businesses generally believed it essential to have representatives overseas who were conversant in the language and culture of the trading partner, despite the fact that language and cultural skills

⁷⁶¹ Cf. Smith 1988: 69; Bartholomae 1990: 402.

⁷⁶² Cf. Kaplan 1993a: 3; Johnson 2000: 17-20.

were not actually acknowledged or rewarded in any way and continue to be largely unrecognised today.

There is a widespread view in the English-speaking business environment that foreign language competence is unimportant as English is accepted as the *lingua franca* of international business (Enderwick and Akoorie 1994: 4). This view, however, cannot be justified in the increasingly technology oriented world, where the competitive edge depends on marketing skills, of which language and cultural skills are an integral part. Also because the economic and political power is no longer monopolised by English-speaking countries, monolingual businesses will lose market knowledge and, subsequently, significant opportunities. Enderwick and Akoorie (1994: 6) concluded that the most important languages for New Zealand trade were French, Japanese, German, Malay and Korean, as well as other Asian and European languages and Arabic. This would appear to be a fairly accurate reflection of the language needs of New Zealand's international trade sector even today.

A market research report on *Foreign Language Priorities for the International Management Programme* undertaken by the University of Waikato's Management Research Centre in 1995 found that the most important languages for New Zealand's tourism industry were German, Japanese, Korean and Mandarin (Management Research Centre 1995: 38). The report (1995: 13) also found the majority of the business people interviewed felt that learning languages and being open to other cultures was important particularly as New Zealand now operates in a global environment.⁷⁶³

The development and diversification of language learning in New Zealand followed the changes in New Zealand's national identity similar to the developments in Australia. It should, however, be noted that the history of migration and policy development in New Zealand is rather different from that of Australia. In contrast to Australia New Zealand has not followed the model of a multicultural society but rather has tended to promote a 'bicultural' image (Peddie 1991a: 31; Geare 1997: 67).⁷⁶⁴

Maori was the first language of the country, which was then colonised by the English. As in Australia, English became the dominant language and the foreign languages taught (predominantly French and German) reflected those taught in the British education system. In recent times, however, New Zealand has come to regard itself as an Asian-Pacific nation, although it remains part of the Commonwealth. The study of European languages was historically justified on cultural and traditional grounds, although these reasons could have been supported by the trading relationship New Zealand had with Western Europe, in

⁷⁶³ Those interviewed included the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Education staff, New Zealand Tourism Board staff, the former Hamilton City Mayor, TRADENZ staff and the New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT).

⁷⁶⁴ Cf. Gabel 1990: 3; McGillivray 1996: 13; Johnson 2000: 14.

particular with the UK. European languages have lost their important role in the Pacific region as this cultural justification has been diminished to a degree by the political and economic re-orientation towards Asia that New Zealand (and Australia) has undergone and by the diversification of New Zealand's trading relations during the past two decades (Levett and Adams 1987: 2.4-2.5; Knüfermann 1998a: 477).⁷⁶⁵ Increasing numbers of students are learning the languages of the Asia-Pacific region, a trend that is reflected in the secondary school curriculum (ERO 1994: 3).⁷⁶⁶

There has also been an increased awareness of the Maori language and culture, which is now widely taught and officially endorsed. It is estimated that approximately "half of Maori adults (41 percent) are unable to speak Maori. Only 8 percent of Maori adults are highly fluent speakers of the language." (Ministry of Maori Development 1998b: 1)⁷⁶⁷ The Maori adult population numbered 275 000 in 1995 when this survey was undertaken with the total Maori population estimated to be circa 440 000 (Ministry of Maori Development 1998a: 79, 97).

A more complex labour market and the prohibitive cost associated with higher education are reflected in the choice of subjects taken by students at the school level, as the trend towards choosing subjects with a direct career orientation has gained momentum (Department of Statistics 1990: 28). Oettli (1998: 267) found that "New Zealand's political and economic move away from Europe and towards an orientation to the Pacific Rim is clearly reflected in the languages its students choose to study." Over the decade 1987 to 1996, the numbers of secondary school students learning German has remained relatively constant at approximately 8500 to 9000, while the number learning Japanese and Spanish have grown dramatically, mainly at the expense of French.

In 1987, 22 percent of the total secondary school population were learning one or more languages (other than English). This rose by 1992 to just over 26 percent and by the year 2000 the total number of students studying foreign languages at the secondary school level was approximately 33 percent (Cassie February 2000: 5).⁷⁶⁸ In 1970 the number of secondary students learning French totaled 48 908. Ten years later in 1980 the total had dropped to 37 115 (Department of Education 1970: 29, 1980: 42). While ERO's review found that French remained the most popular language in 1992 in New Zealand schools with approximately 26 400 students, this constituted a reduction from 1987 to 1992 of 15 percent. 296 of the 395 secondary schools in New Zealand taught French, a direct reflection of the British model New Zealand's education system is based on (Knüfermann 1998a: 477-478).

⁷⁶⁵ Cf. Johnson 2000: 72-73.

⁷⁶⁶ Cf. Smith 1988: 69; Bartholomae 1990: 402-403.

⁷⁶⁷ Cf. Geary 1997: 52; Johnson 2000: 15-17.

⁷⁶⁸ Very few primary and intermediate schools include languages other than English and Maori in their curriculum. If they do, the most popular languages are French and Japanese. Some offer community languages, such as Khmer, Modern Greek and Samoan, in areas where these are spoken by a high proportion of the community (ERO 1994: 8).

In 1992 Japanese was the second most popular language with approximately 19 700 students learning Japanese, an increase of 12 percent from 1987. However, by 1998 Japanese had become the most popular language learnt at the secondary school level with approximately 22 300 students, as opposed to French with approximately 20 990. The number of students learning Japanese appears to have peaked in 1995 with 26 480 students enrolled in courses at 352 schools in that year (Ministry of Education 1998; Cassie February 2000: 5). In 2000 circa 22 155 students were learning Japanese at 264 secondary schools, while French had again become the most popular language (possible due to the recession in Asian countries and thus the decline in popularity of these languages) with 23 700 students at 255 schools.

German was the third most popular language with approximately 9300 students in 1992. The number of schools offering German had declined since 1987, but the actual number of students had risen by 12 percent from 1987 (ERO 1994: 7-8). By 1998, however, only 7377 students were enrolled in courses at 132 schools (Ministry of Education 1998). In 2000 this figure had increased marginally to 7762 at 114 schools (Cassie February 2000: 5; Johnson 2000: 68, 71).

The number of students learning Latin, Russian and Italian in secondary schools was relatively small and have remained so. However, there was a dramatic increase in the number of students learning Spanish from 45 students in 1987 to 2247 at 58 schools by 1998 and 3318 students in 2000 at 68 schools (Ministry of Education 1998; Cassie February 2000: 5; Johnson 2000: 73).⁷⁶⁹ The numbers learning Samoan and other Pacific Island languages have also steadily increased, particularly in the greater Auckland area. The numbers of students learning modern Chinese (or Mandarin) at secondary school in 1998 had increased to 928 from approximately 60 in 1989 (Ministry of Education 1998). The most significant areas of growth in foreign language learning were, therefore, in Spanish, the Asian and the Pacific Island languages, but the numbers remained relatively small (apart from in Japanese) when compared with the numbers learning German and French (ERO 1994: 7-8).

The diversification of languages taught at secondary schools is paralleled by a similar diversification in the courses in foreign languages offered at the universities. In 1965 the languages offered at New Zealand universities included French, German, Greek, Italian, Latin, Maori, Russian, Swedish, Spanish. Hebrew was offered at Auckland; French and German at Massey; French, German, Greek, Latin, Italian, Maori and Russian at Victoria; French, German, Greek, Latin and Russian at Canterbury; and French, German, Greek, Hebrew, Latin and Russian at Otago University. By 1980, Maori was offered at five

⁷⁶⁹ Quite a number of these students were learning the language by Correspondence or Distance Education. The New Zealand Correspondence School's foreign language programmes have often been used as a stop-gap measure throughout the history of foreign language learning in New Zealand (Marshall 1976: 45).

universities, the exception being Otago. German and French remained on offer at all six universities, while Japanese had been introduced at Auckland, Massey, Canterbury and Waikato. Latin remained on offer at all universities except at Waikato, while Russian was not available at Waikato and Massey Universities. Auckland had also introduced Chinese and Indonesian to its offerings. By 1980 Victoria had introduced Indonesian, Chinese and Spanish, and Canterbury had added Chinese to the languages offered (Bancroft 1980: 212-213).

Parallel to the development seen at the secondary school level as the range of languages diversified, the enrolments in French dropped, the number of tertiary students of German increased slightly and the number enrolling in Maori and Japanese increased significantly (Bancroft 1980: 218-219). By 1990 enrolments (and ultimately degrees awarded) in the 'traditional' languages of French and Latin had declined further, while enrolments in Japanese and Spanish had increased considerably (Waite 1992 Part B: 71).

According to Bancroft's report (1980: 213), not only did the range of foreign languages taught diversify, but also the type of courses offered diversified from the traditional language and literature courses to include courses in the cultural, social and historical aspects of the target countries and beginners' and introductory language courses. Bancroft (1980: 12-13) also found that there was no longer uniformity between courses offered by the various departments as there had been in the 1960s and early 1970s.

There has been an increasing demand for language learning in New Zealand overall, and in particular, a diversification and shift in emphasis in the range of languages offered (from the British model of French as the first foreign language towards Japanese and other Asian-Pacific languages). One major factor impacting on the teaching and learning of foreign languages in New Zealand is, however, that the learning of foreign languages is not compulsory at New Zealand secondary schools. In addition, individual schools can decide which foreign languages, if any, they will teach and how these languages will be taught (full-year courses, half-year courses or modules, for instance). The teaching and learning of foreign languages in New Zealand has tended to follow the trends (such as the dramatic reduction in French after the nuclear testing in the Pacific or the reduction in the popularity of Japanese due to the economic crisis), particularly given that there is no national languages policy.

One method the New Zealand schools have used to include languages cost-effectively in their curriculum is to implement foreign language modules in the third form (or year 9), whereby students learn German for six weeks, for instance, then Japanese for six weeks, then Chinese for several weeks and so on. The advantage of this is that students have the opportunity to familiarise themselves with a number of languages before choosing to concentrate on one or two particular languages, if at all. This trend has led to a great

variation in the number of hours per year the students spend learning a language. The ERO review (1994: 13) found this to be disadvantageous to students at the higher levels of study, especially at the tertiary level.

Despite the importance of foreign languages as an essential skill being reiterated in several key government documents in recent years (including the *New Zealand Curriculum Framework*) and despite an increasing number of students learning languages overall, foreign languages are often regarded more as an adjunct to the core curriculum and, therefore, not worthy of further expenditure.

If the future economy and society of New Zealand is dependent on language and cultural skills, then the issues surrounding the teaching and learning of foreign languages in New Zealand require urgent attention. ERO (1994: 17) concluded:

if second language study is not seen as conducive to gaining qualifications or employment then neither parents nor students will necessarily afford it a high priority in selecting a course of study.

One of the most common misconceptions about the value of learning foreign languages in New Zealand (as in Australia) is that foreign language competencies will not help a graduate to gain employment, that languages are not vocational subjects and, therefore, not directly applicable to the workplace. The so-called *Porter Project* (Crocombe *et al.* 1991: 104) highlighted the need for New Zealand companies to have staff members with language and cultural skills and concluded “commitment to foreign language teaching [in New Zealand] has been limited and not well matched to New Zealand’s trading requirements.” Enderwick and Gray (1992: 50) found the diversification of the international market involves language and cultural barriers that New Zealand graduates must be trained for. The question is whether or not New Zealand’s educational institutions and government policy (oriented as it is towards Asia) are allowing or encouraging this to happen.

Grant (1996: 5) describes the current climate in the education and economic sectors of New Zealand as forcing the (usually small) foreign language departments to justify their existence not in academic terms, but rather in terms of the market forces, in numerical terms. She continues that modern languages had to “fight for recognition as proper subjects of higher learning. It seems today that is a battle [they] may have to fight all over again.” Grant (1996: 5) believes that the value of learning foreign languages needs to be explained to the public, the media and the politicians:

New Zealand as a nation has yet to learn to value the benefits of having large numbers of its citizens able to interact and communicate comfortably in more than one language and culture. It also underestimates the long-term planning and investment required to achieve that. [...] Can we afford to run down or disestablish the minimal resources at present in place to meet the nation’s growing needs for language competence in ever more areas?

The New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT)⁷⁷⁰ (1991: 31) and others have repeatedly called for compulsory foreign language learning in schools and universities and for greater links and co-operation between the different levels of education. The association believes that this would raise the overall status of languages within New Zealand's education system.

III.2.2 Towards a New Zealand Languages Policy?

It is becoming increasingly imperative for New Zealanders to be able to communicate in a multilingual world as international relations are changing and new trading partnerships are developing. Technological developments mean that New Zealand's geographical isolation is no longer a barrier to communication. These developments have focused the attention of those in education, business and politics on the issue of foreign language learning.

The study of foreign languages is not considered an integral part of the education system in New Zealand and the study of languages (other than English and Maori) is not actively promoted. This despite repeated calls for a national languages policy to achieve this and repeated government statements dating back to the mid 1970s, such as the then Director-General of Education, W. Renwick's admission in 1975 of the need for a coherent set of policies regarding the teaching and learning of languages in New Zealand (*NZ Language Teacher* July 1975: 6-8).

Reports such as the Marshall Report, *Second Language Learning in New Zealand*, in 1976 and Bancroft's *Second Languages in New Zealand* in 1977 called for a national languages policy to be established, saying the "present neglect of language learning in New Zealand is deplorable, both in terms of the education of the individual and of the needs of society." (Marshall 1976: 13) These argued that matters such as a "greater agreement on objectives and syllabuses, rationalisation of resources, increased contacts with the countries and peoples of the target language(s), development of travel and refresher facilities, and a comprehensive languages policy within New Zealand's overall educational system" were necessary and in need of urgent review (Bancroft 1980: 244).

The NZALT has repeatedly called for a coherent and detailed policy for the teaching and learning of foreign languages in New Zealand educational institutions (NZALT 1991: 23; 1995: 1). The NZALT (1991: 24-25) believes that a national languages policy should promote the learning of at least one language (other than English) by all New Zealanders and should include the support of language programmes at all levels of formal education. Furthermore such a policy should recognise and reward language competencies in all areas of government employment, should foster positive attitudes towards the learning and use of languages and provide for programmes in New Zealand English for all New Zealanders. The

⁷⁷⁰ Cf. <http://www.nzalt.org.nz> (24 July 2001).

benefits of such initiatives include personal, practical, cultural and social benefits, not just economic (NZALT 1991: 24).

New Zealand's geographical isolation makes learning languages even more important despite the international significance of English. Those involved in teaching or research of foreign languages in New Zealand, including the NZALT and Christopher Hawley (1987), have expressed the need for language learning as an integral part of education in today's multi-cultural, increasingly interconnected world, whether it be European, Asian, Pacific or other languages.

Hawley (1987: 46) describes the teaching and learning of languages in New Zealand as being "piecemeal and uncoordinated."⁷⁷¹ He continues that although long overdue developments in the teaching of Maori have started to occur:

there is limited recognition of the importance of foreign languages in New Zealand's future. A language policy would provide the opportunity to clarify our thinking as a society, and plan the best possible use of what resources we have to promote the teaching and learning of languages at all levels.

Hawley further recommends that the policy provide incentives and the resources for students to learn European, Asian and Pacific languages.

Of great concern is the tunnel vision from which New Zealand politicians have tended to suffer. According to Knüfermann (1993b: 71), the policy decisions regarding foreign language teaching and learning have followed the popular trends of the times:

Once Japan encounters more serious economic problems, the Japanese flavour will be replaced with Chinese, Spanish or Arabic. Europe, Australia, Japan/Asia and the United States are New Zealand's major trading partners, and this may provide some guide for the selection of languages. But irrespective of the trade value of a particular language, the benefit that the student will derive from the encounter with a foreign civilisation by far exceeds its immediate usefulness. It will enable students above all to ask questions, to develop a sense of inquisitiveness, to understand, identify and solve problems, not solely from a national point of view, but from a multiple perspective.

As regards the question of which language(s) should be promoted or taught in New Zealand, most involved in the field believe all languages presently taught or established in New Zealand are in need of promotion within educational institutions. And the priority listing of languages should only be a guide rather than a prescription and that it should be reviewed on a regular basis by way of research rather than simply following or reacting to the popular trends (NZALT 1991: 27-28). English is the most widely spoken language in New Zealand and crucial to all citizens. Maori is the language of the *tangata whenua* (indigenous people) and one of New Zealand's two official languages. English as a Second Language is vital for all new permanent residents, many of whom are from non English-speaking countries.

⁷⁷¹ Until 1996 the New Zealand census did not contain any questions about languages spoken and statistics relating to key language issues are limited or unavailable in many cases.

Foreign languages are important in economic, educational and cultural terms. The NZALT (1991: 27) believes languages, such as German and French, are no less important than Asian languages:

Even in economic terms, both of these “traditional” languages are widely used internationally. German, for example, is extremely important in Eastern Europe and liable to be even more significant in the EC since East and West German reunification.

The NZALT's submission (1991: 31-34) to Waite's report notes that a national languages policy would have to make provision for the resources required to develop a comprehensive language curriculum (to allow an easier transition from secondary to tertiary level language learning), and for the publicity needed to make schools, tertiary institutions and the community aware of the new developments. Further issues of concern were the quality of language teacher training (as some teachers in schools are untrained native speakers and at the tertiary level staff are not always trained in teaching) and the question of the access to language courses at primary or intermediate schools, rather than only at secondary level as is the case in most New Zealand schools. Something that was and remains of great concern to the NZALT (1991: 30) is that it remains the schools' choice as to which languages and in which form, if at all, they offer languages in the curriculum.

The marketing of the study of foreign languages is a priority task according to Waite (1992) and Knüfermann (1993b: 71-72) for a number of reasons, including the fact that the range of potential career opportunities is greater than ever for language students. The 1996 *NZVCC Graduate Employment Survey* (1996: 17) shows 16.8 percent of Humanities graduates were still seeking employment after six months as opposed to 20.5 percent of Law graduates and 22.1 percent of Computer Science graduates. From that one could derive that language graduates have no less chance of finding employment than graduates with vocationally oriented degrees. Those students who combine the study of languages with Management Studies, for instance, should have an even greater chance of finding employment.

In 1990, the Ministry of Education commissioned Dr Jeffrey Waite to develop a national languages policy for New Zealand. Many within the language disciplines felt that this was long overdue as they had been pushing for a national languages policy since the 1970s. The report was published in two parts: *aotearoa speaking for ourselves A Discussion on the Development of a New Zealand Languages Policy. Part A: The Overview and Part B: The Issues*. The government's intentions were spelt out in the foreword of Waite's report (1992 Part A: 4):

Our economic growth is linked directly to our ability to succeed in an increasingly competitive international economy and an increasingly high-tech environment. In response to this, we must achieve ever higher levels of literacy; and while maintaining our traditional links with English-speaking countries, we must become more familiar with the languages and cultures of the dynamic countries of East Asia and the European Community.

New Zealand's growing diversity is reflected in a growing linguistic diversity. More trade is occurring with the non-English-speaking world, more migrants are coming to settle here with a language other than English, more children are learning in Maori, more students are coming from overseas to learn English, and more tourists are visiting New Zealand from non-English-speaking countries than ever before.

Faced with these major changes, New Zealand needs to adopt a coherent and comprehensive approach to all these language issues.

Waite (1992 Part A: 18-22) identifies six main priorities regarding languages in New Zealand:

- The revitalisation of the Maori language;
- Second-chance adult literacy programmes;
- English as a Second Language (ESL) and first language maintenance programmes for children;
- Adult ESL programmes;
- National capabilities in international languages; and
- The provision of services in languages other than English.

The report outlines the background to these six priority issues, the policy requirements and the strategies needed to implement such policies. Waite (1992 Part A: 6) felt New Zealand should encourage and promote the teaching and learning of languages other than English and Maori "in order to enhance our competitiveness on the international scene, to raise our international standing, to improve our understanding of other peoples and their way of life, to facilitate the access of new settlers to a range of social services, and to broaden our intellectual horizons." Despite the diversification of languages offered by educational institutions in New Zealand over the past two decades, Waite (1992 Part A: 8) found that only a minority of students studied one or more languages.

Waite (1992 Part A: 17) contends "the importance of international language skills is underlined by the fact that only three of our seven largest overseas markets have English as their first language." The report lists ten priority foreign languages to assist the government, educational institutions and students to make coherent choices about foreign language policy, syllabi, assessment procedures and course development. These are (Standard) Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Spanish, Arabic, Indonesian, Italian, Korean and Russian. However, these were meant only as a guideline and do not mean other languages (already offered) should not be taught. It is also important to be aware of the relationship between trade, tourism, international relations and international languages (Waite 1992 Part B: 72-75).

New Zealand's planning of language issues to date has been ad hoc in nature and most New Zealanders are largely unaware of the issues involved (Waite 1992 Part A: 9).⁷⁷² Waite's research refers to Australia's language policies and the New Zealand government's

⁷⁷² Cf. McGillivray 1996: 8-11.

national education goals. It acknowledges that language is one of the factors involved in establishing a national identity, hence the emphasis on the revitalisation of the Maori language and the maintenance of heritage or first languages (Waite 1992 Part A: 12-14). Waite (1992 Part B: 16-17, 21) raises concerns about the low rate of bilingualism in New Zealand and recommends the study of languages be included in the school curriculum. Other key policy areas covered include the teaching of English as a Second Language and the maintenance of community languages and New Zealand Sign Language.

Waite's report was a significant step towards the development of a national languages policy, and recommended urgent action. He (1992 Part B: 5) also recommended marketing the national languages policy as a "comprehensive and cohesive plan for our language resources" so attention would be brought to the various components of the policy and the linkages between them. However, little action has been taken by the New Zealand government to date as regards Waite's recommendations.

A further indication that a language policy may have been imminent was the government's medium term strategy released in 1992, which included the need for language development, maintenance and planning (Peddie 1993: 32-33). This was then reiterated in a number of government statements and policy documents, including the 1994 *Education for the 21st Century* and the 1993 *New Zealand Curriculum Framework*. The former identified the number of students studying foreign languages as a key indicator of the education system's ability to provide the skills required by New Zealand's international trade, tourism and economy and, therefore, an essential part of education (Ministry of Education 1994a: 44-45). The *Curriculum Framework* (1993: 10) outlined the government's policy, stating:⁷⁷³

all students benefit from learning another language from the earliest practicable age. Such learning broadens students' general language abilities and brings their own language into sharper focus. It enriches them intellectually, socially, and culturally, offers an understanding of the ways in which other people think and behave, and furthers international relations and trade. Students will be able to choose from a range of Pacific, Asian, and European languages, all of which are important to New Zealand's regional and international interests.

Peddie's *Longitudinal Comparative Study of Language Policy Development and Implementation in New Zealand and Victoria, Australia 1986-1993* (1993: 1) found that a national languages policy in New Zealand is urgently required for three main reasons:

- The increased interest in Maori;
- The need to learn foreign languages for international trade, tourism and cultural relations; and
- The recent and continuing influx of non-English speaking immigrants.

⁷⁷³ Cf. Johnson 2000: 98-101.

His interim report, *One, Two or Many? The Development and Implementation of Languages Policy in New Zealand*, (1992: 74) lists policy priorities as the Maori language, ESL, international languages, community languages, and English and heritage languages.

He compares New Zealand's lack of such a policy with Australia's two national policies⁷⁷⁴ and policies enacted by individual states and concludes that New Zealand could learn from Victoria's development and implementation of several comprehensive languages policies (1993: 1-2).⁷⁷⁵ Peddie (1993: 2) found that both New Zealand and Victoria were (and are) experiencing ongoing economic restructuring, public sector reform, diversification of markets and increased numbers of tertiary level students during the 1980s and 1990s. New Zealand's development of a national languages policy has been hampered by financial restraints, but the pressure to implement such a policy has been heightened by the trends described above and by the publication of Waite's 1992 report outlining a number of priorities in language policy development.

In addition, given the fact that several prominent groups and individuals regard the "better and more widespread learning of international languages of trade [as] a natural consequence of the government push for new and extended international markets" (Peddie 1993: 27) and the apparent government interest in international languages in the recent documents outlined above, it would appear that (Peddie 1993: 34):

languages are gaining a higher profile in terms of the curriculum, but it seems equally clear that this is more in terms of economic strategy than of the much wider range of social, cultural, personal and political issues which need to be covered by a comprehensive policy.

Other issues Peddie (1993: 5-6) stresses include the question of resourcing, which involves much more than just providing the finance. Other recommendations included in Peddie's report (1993: 7-8) were that a New Zealand National Languages and Literacy Association (similar to the Australian example) be set up to implement the policy, and to coordinate research and development, that research into "language learning, language use and language needs, including needs for international languages of tourism and trade" be initiated and that a "publicity campaign to educate all New Zealanders about the importance of languages, the nature of language learning, and the cultural, social and economic value of languages to the New Zealand society" be initiated.

Both Peddie (1993) and Waite (1992) recommend a number of priorities in regard to the development and implementation of a national languages policy. Both recommended, however, that the government needed to develop and implement a comprehensive national languages policy covering "all aspects of language learning and use in New Zealand."

⁷⁷⁴ The *National Policy on Languages* (1987) and the *Australia's Language: The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (1991). A further policy, the *Languages Other Than English (LOTE) Strategy Plan* was enacted in 1993 (cf. section II.4.2.2).

⁷⁷⁵ The *Victoria Languages Action Plan* (1989) and *Victoria: Education for Excellence* (1991) (cf. section II.4.2.2).

(Peddie 1993: 7) The development of a national languages policy and the government's repeated stressing of the need for increased foreign language competencies in New Zealand have, however, come to little of substance. There has been no further action on the recommendations contained in Waite's report, despite it having been commissioned by the Ministry of Education and despite the overall increase in interest in languages (Knüfermann 1998a: 477-478). None of the recommendations in Peddie's report have been implemented either, despite the obvious need for a national languages policy and greater coordination and support for the teaching and learning of languages (Peddie 1992:26).⁷⁷⁶

The lack of progress in the development of a national languages policy for New Zealand raises many questions for those involved in the teaching of foreign languages and should raise questions in the minds of the business sector. The validity of the argument that Asian languages are the most important for New Zealand students (at all levels) to learn is one such issue. Particularly as New Zealand's relations with the EU and other parts of Europe, such as Eastern Europe are increasing.

The complexity of language teaching and learning issues raises the question whether the teaching of foreign languages can be left to regulation by market forces. Rather than government policies, most provisions for language teaching and learning in New Zealand in recent years would appear to have developed without any comprehensive or long-term planning. This lack of planning is disadvantageous as the training of language teachers and the learning of a language require time and resources, something which cannot instantly be changed to meet rapid changes in market demand or popular trends. The development of such resources must be carried out over a period of time, therefore, requiring long-term planning and resourcing.

The promotion of the study of languages falls at present to the teachers of those languages (Knüfermann 1993b: 69, 1998a: 480), but one has to question how much longer these staff can continue with this, given the declining resources and the administrative tasks already carried out by teachers and university staff. The marketing of language studies will need to include the range of career opportunities available to language students today and the applicability of their skills. Waite (1992 Part B: 73) suggests that students could "increase their vocational opportunities and contribute to the country's efforts to increase its international profile by marrying their language skills with a variety of other skills."

Many aspects of language teaching and learning in New Zealand require further research, policy development and implementation as research on language usage and language teaching and learning in New Zealand is limited. The issue of the quality of teacher training, the immediate financial resources required to implement a comprehensive policy, the

⁷⁷⁶ Cf. McGillivray 1996: 8-11; Johnson 2000: 27-65.

adaptability of the policy over time where necessary to meet market demand, migration patterns and changes in international relations and the development of language resources, in particular those adapted to the New Zealand context, are just some of the issues surrounding the development of a national languages policy in New Zealand. To co-ordinate such research, both Waite and Peddie recommended that a national languages research institute be established, but this too has yet to be actioned.

One aspect of language learning that requires further research, particularly in schools, is the multiplicity of courses (including full-year, half-year and modules) and the effects these have on the overall standards of language competency in New Zealand. Further research is also needed into the importance and role of foreign languages in diverse sectors of the New Zealand society, including tourism, international trade, education and in the community. The information gathered during such research should be utilised to portray the 'actual' situation and value of foreign languages in New Zealand as opposed to sudden decisions being made based on opinions, popular trends and quasi propaganda.

III.2.3 The Case for German – a New Zealand Perspective.

When considering the value of learning German within the New Zealand context, it is important to note that New Zealand-German relations during the 1990s and at the beginning of the 21st century are a significant part of New Zealand's overall international standing with the EU, which is an important economic and cultural partner and a world economic power. Leading industrial nations such as Germany have a high proportion of multilingual professionals. Without foreign language competence, career prospects are limited, a fact New Zealand is beginning to recognise. For New Zealand (and Australia), access to German-speaking Europe (politically, commercially and culturally) depends ultimately on a thorough command of the German language and knowledge of the German culture (Morgan 1991; Wabenhorst 1997).

The German language is one of the top ten internationally important languages, spoken by approximately 98 million as a native language and approximately a further 40 million as a foreign or second language.⁷⁷⁷ It is the language most widely spoken in Western Europe, in Germany, Austria, Switzerland and Liechtenstein, an area historically and commercially significant for New Zealand. German is also the major second language in many Eastern European countries, a market that has become increasingly important since the fall of communism in 1989/1990. Germany itself has played a significant role in the modern world both politically and culturally, and the achievements of German-speaking authors, scientists, philosophers, theologians, psychologists, musicians and artists have had a profound influence on these fields worldwide.⁷⁷⁸

⁷⁷⁷ Cf. Ammon 1991a: 38-39, 567.

⁷⁷⁸ Cf. Department of Germanic Languages & Literature 1996: 1; Department of European & Hispanic Studies 1997.

Another interesting fact is that New Zealand has a substantial permanent population of German-speaking people. The *1996 Census of Population and Dwellings* found that the German language is spoken by approximately 32 000 residents⁷⁷⁹ of New Zealand and is the sixth most widely spoken language in New Zealand. The top ten languages as spoken by New Zealand residents were found to be as follows:

English	3 290 451
Maori	153 669
Samoan	70 878
French	45 216
Cantonese	33 579
German	31 983
Dutch	27 471
Tongan	19 113
Japanese	18 756
North Chinese	18 481

Korean and Spanish held places eleven and twelve with 11 154 and 10 692 respectively. 70 707 residents did not speak English and 468 711 New Zealand residents spoke two or more languages (Statistics NZ 1998a: 45-50). The 2001 census found that the number of speakers of German in New Zealand had risen to 33 981 (Macbrayne 2001).

As a major economic power within the EU, Germany has repeatedly supported New Zealand's interests in the EU, particularly in promoting market access for New Zealand's products. Germany itself is one of New Zealand's major trading partners. In 1999 Germany was New Zealand's sixth largest market for exports (totalling NZ\$ 623 million) and the fifth largest source of imports (totalling NZ\$ 1088 million) (Statistics New Zealand 2000b).⁷⁸⁰ The German market is an important source of capital imports for New Zealand because of its technological development and research. It is also a relatively stable and long-term market destination for New Zealand's exports.

Germany exports primarily vehicles, machinery, chemicals, medical, pharmaceutical and precision engineering equipment to New Zealand, while New Zealand's exports to Germany consist mainly of agricultural and horticultural products. Exports, however, are diversifying into areas such as electro-technical products and semi-processed chemicals. Germany, which claims to be the world's largest importer of food, is also New Zealand's largest market for venison. Business circles in both countries believe that German - New Zealand trade has the potential to continue expanding (NZGBA 1997: 1).⁷⁸¹

One very promising sector in New Zealand-German bilateral relations is that of tourism, which is New Zealand's largest source of foreign exchange earnings (WTO 1996: 112).⁷⁸² German-speaking Europe has become a well-established tourism market for New Zealand.

⁷⁷⁹ 19 026 of those were born overseas (Statistics NZ 1998b: 15).
⁷⁸⁰ Cf. NZGBA 1997: 4, 11.
⁷⁸¹ Cf. Tourism New Zealand 2000e; <http://www.mfat.govt.nz/foreign/regions/Europe/overview.html> (3 April 2001).
⁷⁸² Cf. Statistics New Zealand 2000a; Tourism New Zealand 1999, 2000b, 2000c; <http://www.tourisminfo.govt.nz/documents/NZTNAAnnualReport.pdf> (16 March 2001).

The number of German visitor arrivals totaled 47 847 for the year ending June 1997 (NZTB 1997: 1). For the year ended December 2000 the number of German visitors to New Zealand had risen to 51 451 (after a decline in visitor numbers from 1997 through to 1999) (Tourism New Zealand 2000a). German tourists in New Zealand tend to travel away from the main visitor routes and are relatively big spenders. The average spent per German visitor in 2000 was NZ\$ 3957.00 (a total of NZ\$ 190 million) compared with the average spent per Japanese visitor of NZ\$ 5000.00 (Tourism New Zealand 2000b).⁷⁸³

Close scientific relations between New Zealand and Germany developed as a result of the Agreement on Scientific-Technological Co-operation formalised in 1977/1978. This Agreement has provided a major catalyst for New Zealand–German relations and is probably the most important formal scientific relationship New Zealand has. The focal points of joint research have been chiefly in the Agricultural and Forestry sectors. In recent years, however, much of the focus has been on the protection of the environment and natural resources (Delegation European Communities 1993: 14).

In the 1990s, bilateral cultural relations extend to all areas of the cultural sector ranging from exhibitions, youth exchanges and literature through to joint film-making ventures and sporting activities. These cultural relations are financed with the support of the German government and other private sources from German-speaking countries. Scholarships or grants for students from a wide range of disciplines, including Music, Management Studies, the Sciences and Languages, are awarded by, for instance, the *DAAD*, the Carl-Duisburg Association and the *Alexander von Humboldt* Foundation (Delegation European Communities 1993: 15-16).

There are numerous and increasing opportunities for New Zealand/German youth exchanges through schemes or programmes such as the Rotary Clubs, AFS, Youth For Understanding and the two and nine-month New Zealand German Secondary School Exchange Programmes. Travel and study opportunities as part of (or complementing) language studies at secondary schools and universities enhance the expansion of New Zealand-German relations both in the economic and cultural fields.

During the 1990s approximately 130 New Zealand Secondary Schools offered German as a subject with approximately 7400 pupils studying the language. This was and is complemented by instruction in the German language (and related topics) through the New Zealand Correspondence School, the German Departments/Sections at six of the country's universities, the *Goethe-Institut* in Wellington,⁷⁸⁴ a number of Polytechnics and at private schools and other educational institutions (Delegation European Communities 1993: 15-16). The geographical location of New Zealand as the country furthest away from the Federal

⁷⁸³ Cf. NZTB 1996: 8; Tourism New Zealand 2000d.

⁷⁸⁴ Cf. <http://www.goethe.de/an/wel> (24 July 2001).

Republic of Germany, and the size of the New Zealand population (approximately 3.8 million)⁷⁸⁵ make the fact that students can learn German at so many educational institutions all the more significant as it indicates the subject is relatively well represented despite the recent change(s) in the political, economic and educational context.⁷⁸⁶

The New Zealand German Teachers Association (GANZ or German in Aotearoa New Zealand) was founded in 1992 and, in co-operation with the Goethe Institute in Wellington, helps to foster the German language through working sessions, courses and annual seminars and the exchange of information, teaching methods and resources on its website (<http://www.ganz.ac.nz> (24 July 2001)). Other German organisations represented in New Zealand include firms such as *BASF*, *Bayer* and *Hoechst*, the embassy and the New Zealand German Business Association Inc. (NZGBA).

The NZGBA is the official trade representative of the German economy to New Zealand. In 1980 the DIHT established a delegation office in New Zealand in order to assess the market and trade potential. The NZGBA was subsequently established in August 1983 and has a dual role: it is an incorporated bilateral interest group with a membership base; and it is the office of the official trade representative of Germany to New Zealand, i.e. the trade commissioner.⁷⁸⁷ It is located in Auckland in recognition of the region's contribution to New Zealand's international trade.

The association's official function is to promote, enhance and increase trade volumes and relations between New Zealand and Germany. The primary objective of the NZGBA is to increase sales of goods 'Made in Germany' on the New Zealand market. It also aims to ensure that existing trade relations prosper, and that any difficulties encountered by firms are resolved. The Association also assists New Zealand companies to trade with Germany by providing information and contacts to assist these firms to gain access for their products into the German market. These objectives are based on the German government's belief that balanced trade is healthy trade, and that unless one assists their partners to trade, they will not have the foreign exchange to import one's products.⁷⁸⁸

III.3 A Brief History of German Studies in New Zealand.

The history of the Germanistik or German Studies discipline (in the broader sense) in New Zealand could best be described as being entwined with the discovery and settlement of New Zealand. It is perhaps astonishing to many that scientific and cultural links between German-speaking Europe and New Zealand (as in Australia) began over 200 years ago, when Johann Georg Adam Forster and his father, Johann Reinhold Forster, accompanied

⁷⁸⁵ Cf. <http://www.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/pas/pascs96.nsf> (16 March 2001).

⁷⁸⁶ Cf. Obermayer 1996: 7-8.

⁷⁸⁷ Cf. *Interview* with the Trade Commissioner/Managing Director of the NZGBA, 11 September 1996.

⁷⁸⁸ Cf. <http://www.nzgermanbiz-ahk.co.nz> (25 May 2001).

Captain James Cook on his ship *Resolution* as part of the scientific team on Cook's second voyage around the world (1772 to 1775) (Asher 1993: 126-27). Asher (1993: 127) describes Forster's duties as being "to 'collect, describe, and draw' all objects of natural history which they might encounter during the voyage." These records became the basis of his book, *Reise um die Welt*, volume one of which was published in 1778 in Berlin, the first literary travel book in German literature, and which had a powerful impact on German literature and its leading figures, such as Goethe, who visited Forster in September 1779, at a time when the (Asher 1993: 129):

German intelligentsia had become 'weary of Europe' and distrustful of its previously unquestioned values and traditions. They were tired of outworn conventions and political systems. Revolutions, including the French Revolution, were just round the corner.

19th century curiosity about the South Seas brought many scientists and researchers, such as Julius von Haast, Ferdinand von Hochstetter and Ernst Dieffenbach, to New Zealand contributing significantly to the cataloguing of New Zealand's unique geology, flora and fauna and of the Maori culture.⁷⁸⁹ Dieffenbach, who was described as a physician, scientist, naturalist and explorer amongst other things, wrote a grammar book on the Maori language and espoused the view that the teacher of a language has to be constantly aware of the fact that "language expresses the underlying concepts of a people" (Bell 1993: 140-141).

Immigration was a further source of contact between German-speaking Europe and the recently colonised New Zealand in the 19th century. German-speaking immigrants were the second-largest immigrant group after the British to settle throughout New Zealand.⁷⁹⁰ These immigrants tended to assimilate their language and traditions into the already dominant British culture, so the long-term direct influence of the 19th century German-speaking immigrants on New Zealand culture is difficult to gauge accurately (Bade 1993: 37-38). German-speaking immigrants were favoured over other continental European immigrants as the relative similarity of their language and culture to that of the British enabled easy assimilation.

A distinctive German influence is, however, evident in the wine, beer and cheese industries, and in the customs of the remaining Lutheran communities in the Rangatikei, Moutere and Waimea regions (Bade 1993: 38). German-speaking immigrants continued to have an influence on many sectors of New Zealand life and society in the 20th century, including authors, artists and musicians such as Karl Wolfskehl, Maria Dronke, Margot Philips and Friedensreich Hundertwasser, academics such as Paul Hoffmann, Gerda Bell, Wernder Driescher, Sir Karl Popper and Wolfgang Rosenberg, business people and professionals such as Willi Fels, Peter Jacoby, Arthur and Lisl Hilton and the former Chief Justice of New Zealand, Sir Thomas Eichelbaum (Bade 1998).

⁷⁸⁹ Cf. Asher 1993, Oettli 1989.

⁷⁹⁰ For details of the immigration of German-speaking peoples to New Zealand, see Minson 1998.

Despite the work of the German-speaking scientists and researchers and the large numbers of German-speaking immigrants, there was little real interest on the part of the British and Maori New Zealanders in the German language and culture before WWII. This despite German having been listed as an examinable subject in the official University of New Zealand course listings at the University College of Otago in Dunedin since 1873 (two years before French!), at Canterbury University College in Christchurch since 1875, at the University College of Auckland since 1883 and at Victoria University College in Wellington since 1899 (Oettli 1989: 46-47). The listing of German as an examinable subject did not mean that the appropriate teaching staff were available to teach the subject. Many were not sufficiently qualified as French was generally the dominant foreign language taught in New Zealand institutions. In addition, student numbers (if they existed at all) were small. Until the late 1940s German was officially offered as a subject, but often not actually taught, and even when students were interested, they often had to persuade the teacher to conduct the listed seminar.

Three factors appear to have contributed to this lack of interest in German as an academic discipline (Oettli 1989: 48): (i) New Zealand's geographical isolation from Germany and the traditional British orientation of New Zealand's language, culture and politics; (ii) Germany's status as the enemy in two world wars, a factor which not only hindered the development of peaceful cultural relations, but also hastened the assimilation of the cultural identity of the German-speaking settlers; and (iii) New Zealand's education system which has traditionally tended to promote primarily those subjects which had or have a quantifiable and applied value.⁷⁹¹

Despite this, German as an academic discipline began to develop in the 1950s and 1960s. At Auckland University, for instance, the numbers of students studying German increased markedly from 21 in 1948 to over 200 in 1955.⁷⁹² By 1986 the numbers had increased to 366 (Lovich 1983: 20, 31). In 1947 Victoria University appointed David Carrad as Lecturer of German and in 1948 the University of Auckland appointed John Asher as Lecturer of German. Canterbury University and the University of Otago appointed their first lecturers in German in 1949 and 1953 respectively. Three of these four original lecturers were later appointed Professors of German within their respective Departments: Asher in 1963, Eric Herd (who was already Professor of Modern Languages) in 1969 at the University of Otago and Edward Carter at Canterbury University in 1965 (Oettli 1989: 48-49). In 1964 Paul Hoffmann was made Professor of German at Victoria University in Wellington.

⁷⁹¹ Some, however, argue that this has not always been the case, but rather that this is a more recent trend.

⁷⁹² The history of German (and Swedish) at the University of Auckland is described by Sean Lovich (1983) in *German and Swedish at Auckland: A History of Germanic Languages and Literature at the University*.

Oettli (1989: 48) notes that the important links between the British and New Zealand Germanistik disciplines (which still exist today) began with two of the founding professors, Eric Herd and Edward Carter, who came here with British qualifications. Asher, however, was a New Zealander, who had studied German language and literature at Auckland during the war years, although this was theoretically impossible due to a lack of staff (Smits 1996: 28). Asher had then studied in Basel and returned to New Zealand where he was to be a leading promoter of the German language and culture.

After his appointment in 1948, Asher devised a new approach to the teaching of German at New Zealand Universities (Lovich 1983: 19). From the 1880s until then, the main emphasis of the German syllabus at Auckland University had been on prescribed texts for 'seen' translation, composition and the history of German literature of a defined period (usually about 100 years). Asher introduced literature courses that ensured all students continued their study of German literature through to Part III level and that they studied at least three of the following periods: Middle High German literature, Classicism, the literature of the Goethe/Schiller period and 20th century literature, including authors such as Th. Mann, Kafka, Rilke, George and Bergengruen, who had previously not been studied in New Zealand. He also wrote a grammar textbook, *The Framework of German* (first published in 1951), which became the de facto compulsory grammar for the department's students (Lovich 1983: 19-20).

Asher was also instrumental in the founding of the Auckland Goethe Society in 1948. The Society was founded to foster German Studies in New Zealand by contributing "to bringing the two countries closer together, to remove cultural misconceptions, secure for German literature, music and art a fitting place in the New Zealand scene, and, quite specifically, promote the teaching of German in universities and schools" (Asher 1979: 15). The Society held regular meetings at the university, at which lectures were given on academic subjects. It also arranged annual examinations in German for pupils at Auckland's secondary schools.

Before the foundation of the Society, German was taught in only one Auckland school. By 1978 the subject was taught in 89 Auckland schools and the number of pupils learning German in the region had increased to approximately 4500 (Asher 1979: 15). Auckland's example has been mirrored by the founding of Goethe Societies in other New Zealand centres and in other Commonwealth countries. These continue to promote the German language and culture today.

One of the factors which influenced the development and expansion of German as a subject at the school level was the Goethe Society's examinations, which provided a valuable link between university staff and the teachers of German in the schools (Asher 1961: 2). Other factors included the promotion of the subject by the German departments at the universities,

support from the broader community (including members of the Goethe Societies in the main centres), the increased number of young people travelling to Europe and the support of the governments and social and cultural agencies of the German-speaking countries, such as the *Goethe-Institut*, the *DAAD* and the *Alexander von Humboldt* Foundation (Oettli 1998: 267-268).

The number of secondary school pupils learning German increased rapidly from 2170 in 1963 to approximately 8500 in 1990 (Kooznetzoff 1975: 34; Ministry of Education 1990b: 39). During the 1990s, however, the number of pupils learning German reduced to approximately 7400 in 1998, due most probably to the economic and educational factors outlined in the previous sections. In 2000 circa 7760 secondary school pupils were learning German. However, while the overall number of students learning German in secondary schools has declined, the proportion of those students taking German, who continue it into Form 7 (Year 13), has increased from 38 percent in 1979 to 75 percent in 1995 (Oettli 1998: 267).

German as an academic discipline developed rapidly during the 1960s and 1970s. In 1964 two new universities began teaching German, Massey University in Palmerston North and the University of Waikato in Hamilton (Oettli 1989: 49). By 1970 German was available as a subject at all six universities and the course options in which students could enrol included “cultural, historical, preliminary, introductory, reading knowledge and other courses” (Bancroft 1980: 212-213). The total number of students studying German at university in 1960 was 502. By 1970 this had increased to 631 and to 875 in 1975 (Bancroft 1980: 217-218). In 1970 the number of degree completions in German at New Zealand tertiary institutions was 75. In 1980 this had dropped to 71 and by 1990 to 49. However, by 1998 the number of degree completions in German has increased again to 75 (Johnson 2000: 92).

During the 1990s students could undertake German Studies at six of the eight universities with circa twenty lecturers and professors teaching the German language, literature, culture and contemporary issues. About sixty percent of these were either native German speakers or had academic qualifications from German-speaking countries (Oettli 1989: 49). Many of these were (as in most other countries included in this study) not trained as language teachers, but rather as Germanisten.⁷⁹³

Since the 1960s the German departments themselves have fostered ties with German departments in Germany and in the English-speaking world. Oettli (1989: 51-53; 1998: 270-272) describes the close contacts and cooperation which the German departments in New Zealand today have with universities and organisations in German-speaking countries, especially as regards the informal and formal exchange of students, academics and cultural

⁷⁹³ Cf. Johnson 2000: 3, 25.

figures or artists and in the area of academic publications. New Zealand Germanisten publish in a diverse range of national and international journals, including *Colloquia Germanica*, *The German Quarterly*, *Germanic Review*, *Info DaF*, *Modern Language Review* and *Zeitschrift für Germanistik* (Obermayer 1996: 24-25).

Part and parcel of a New Zealand Germanist's professional life are the 'extracurricular' activities such as the *Deutsche Abende*, Goethe Society meetings and activities, working with teachers and parents and other organisations, such as the *Goethe-Institut* (founded in 1980 in Wellington), the *DAAD*, the German Embassy to promote and to ensure the survival of the discipline.⁷⁹⁴ These activities are also supported and promoted (financially and otherwise) by organisations within the German-speaking countries.

Germanistik in New Zealand was established along the lines of the traditional Germanistik discipline or *Binnengermanistik*, with departments teaching mainly German language and literature (Oettli 1998: 272). A good indicator of this is the fact that out of the 182 completed graduate and postgraduate theses from 1967 to 1992, only three or four could be regarded as being research in a subject field other than that of German literature (Obermayer 1992). For example, two such theses were on the use of language laboratories and one was research of a linguistics topic. This trend appears to have continued in the late 1990s although the number of graduate and postgraduate theses dealing with linguistic or applied aspects of the discipline has increased marginally (Klemp 1997, 1999, 2000).⁷⁹⁵

As may be seen from the following analysis of the programmes offered by German departments/sections, there are at present two principal models of German Studies in New Zealand (Franke 1997: 27): (i) the 'traditional' model of which literature is the major component and students begin in year one to take courses in German literature, and (ii) the model which emphasises a strong career-oriented or applied aspect to the study of German. Using this model, literature is likely to be taught within the language and contemporary issues or cultural courses and may be offered only at the second or third year levels. These form the respective ends of a spectrum along which the individual departments/sections add their particular expertise and focus to the basic models.

The situation of the discipline in New Zealand during the 1990s must be regarded in light of the increasing diversification of course content and methods and the academic and public debate about the value of foreign language disciplines in an increasingly utilitarian environment. The debate is heightened by the competition between the universities and the individual (foreign languages) departments themselves, which is a result of the reform process and government policies. The discipline is faced with a number of questions concerning what should be taught as German Studies (such as the question of the place of

⁷⁹⁴ Cf. Oettli 1989: 49-51; 1998: 267-272; Knüfermann 1993; 1998a: 480.

⁷⁹⁵ Cf. Gabel: 1990: 4; Kirkus-Lamont 1989, 1993.

literature in modern German Studies programmes), how it should be taught and the trend by students not to choose courses in literature. Other issues include the question of how to diversify teaching methods to take advantage of the technological advances over recent years, the political climate of 'user pays', the government push for efficiency in universities (which is a threat to the smaller departments) and the need for universities and individual departments/sections to market themselves to attract and or maintain student numbers (Knüfermann 1998a: 477-480, 1998c).

Further issues impacting on the discipline include the limited (although diverse in nature) opportunities for students to have contact with the German language and culture outside of formal education and the fact that the learning of foreign languages is not compulsory in secondary schools (which has resulted in students choosing those subjects regarded as practical as opposed to those regarded as educational). Additionally most students who have learnt a foreign language at secondary school have had limited contact with the literary component of language learning, which in turn impacts on the courses offered at the university level.

The political orientation of the New Zealand government towards Asia and the Pacific over the past ten years has added to the pressure under which the European languages have had to function in New Zealand educational institutions. Departments/sections have had to face the dilemma of how to prevent being marginalised, and of how to promote the learning of a foreign language and culture within the narrow definition of a Bachelor of Arts (Knüfermann 1993a: 509-518).

One major factor in the current situation faced by the discipline in New Zealand is that the universities are funded on the basis of student numbers and have in the past few years experienced drastic cuts in government funding. Student fees have increased and students appear to be choosing the more market-oriented degree programmes, multicultural programmes and language courses without the literature component. The relatively small German departments/sections have found themselves unable to continue teaching the somewhat rigid, traditional curriculum comprising three components: language, literature and culture, without some compromises being made to accommodate the perceived student demand⁷⁹⁶ and other environmental factors. Structural, administrative and curricular changes have already been instituted at all universities. This has meant that the status of literature within the curriculum of many departments/sections has changed or will change in the course of further changes planned at some universities (Lopdell 1995: 133). In addition, the nature of the student population is changing and, thus, altering student demand for courses. For instance, increasing numbers of women, Maori and other minority groups, adult and overseas students are undertaking university level studies.⁷⁹⁷

⁷⁹⁶ In the sense of what courses or types of programmes students have tended to take.

⁷⁹⁷ Cf. Cassie January 2000: 5.

A number of German departments/sections in New Zealand have begun to address these issues and to adapt their teaching programme(s) accordingly. Oettli (1998: 272) notes a:⁷⁹⁸

move to include the study of German 'culture' in the wider sense of German politics, economics, social and political history. In addition, some German departments have entered into strategic alliances with other parts of their universities to provide a language component to, for example, economics, management, or music. [...] Another survival strategy that has been or is being adopted is the grouping of departments of German together with other departments in schools or departments of European languages.

These moves provide those departments with opportunities for change to meet perceived student demand and/or to introduce new programmes, such as European Studies. This, however, has been hampered by a lack of resources and other factors, including the unwillingness of some within the discipline to recognise the dilemma faced them and to change. Despite the obvious difficulties faced by the discipline, some German departments/sections have changed their actual teaching programme(s) only slightly during the past two decades.

The future of German Studies in New Zealand is difficult to predict as the dramatic reforms in the education sector, and to a lesser extent in the economic and political sectors, continue. The continuing trend of declining resources available for German Studies (and European languages as a whole) and the pressure on students to study more vocationally oriented subjects will no doubt impact further on the discipline. However, Oettli (1998: 274) notes that three factors appear advantageous: the quality of the graduates of New Zealand German departments, the development of new approaches to the subject and the "history of the establishment of German Studies in New Zealand and thus the example of those who preceeded the current generation of German scholars and teachers in New Zealand schools." Others too regard this period of change as providing opportunities rather than as the demise of the discipline.⁷⁹⁹

III.4 German Studies at New Zealand Universities.

III.4.1 Introduction to and impact of degree regulations.

In New Zealand universities the *Bachelor of Arts (B.A.)* degree is a three-year course of study at the undergraduate level.⁸⁰⁰ The B.A. is a defined degree comprising 21 or 22 papers normally undertaken full-time over three years. Within the B.A. students are required to complete a number of papers in one subject as their 'major'. During the period with which this study is concerned (that is, during the test period from 1986 to 1997), the subject

⁷⁹⁸ Cf. Bartholomae 1990: 409-410.

⁷⁹⁹ Cf. Knüfermann 1998a: 487, 1998b: 281.

⁸⁰⁰ It is important to note that at New Zealand universities, it is possible to combine a major in German with a major or minor in other academic disciplines, such as Law, Management Studies, Science. New Zealand universities actively promote the flexibility of course combinations (Smith 1988: 65-67).

requirements for a major in German were normally the equivalent of eight papers.⁸⁰¹ These typically included two papers at the 100 level (or during the first year of study) and three papers each at the 200 and 300 levels (or during the second and third years of study).⁸⁰² The exceptions to this were Canterbury University where students majoring in German were only required to take one language and one literature course in each of their three years of study, and Victoria University where six papers (or 36 credits, each paper with a six credit value) in German were required for a major in German.

A number of compulsory 'core' courses were and are stipulated by each department/section for a major in German: typically the language paper and a literature or cultural/civilisation paper at each level of study. For the purposes of the following analysis, a paper or course (some universities use the term 'paper', others the term 'course') is approximately one eighth of a full-time year of study at the undergraduate level. It is an assessment unit for which students receive varying degrees of a pass or fail (expressed usually in letter terms: A+, A, A-, B+, B, B-, etc.). Several New Zealand universities use(d) a points system whereby papers have a point or credit value, but a major in German still required the equivalent of six to eight papers. While a course or paper is notionally the same size at all New Zealand universities, the practice varies as to the length of teaching time per course.

At the graduate level a **Bachelor of Arts (with Honours) (B.A. (Hons))** degree was offered at five of the six universities during the period concerned, the exception being the University of Auckland. Students were typically required to complete four or five honours or graduate level papers, including the advanced language paper(s). Usually one or two papers could be replaced by individual or supervised research in some form. A paper at the graduate level was approximately one quarter of a student's full-time full-year study load. The prerequisite for entry into the B.A. (Hons) was normally a B.A. with a major in German.

The exception to this pattern during the period concerned was the B.A. (Hons) at Otago University where students (with sufficiently high grades) could opt for the B.A. (Hons) stream at the beginning of their second year of study. This requires students to complete additional papers, including a number of graduate level papers, to those required for the B.A. This also requires a further or fourth year of study.

A **Master of Arts (M.A.)** in German generally comprises the equivalent of six to eight graduate level papers, one or more of which can be replaced by a thesis, an extended essay or other research paper(s). The prerequisite for entry into an M.A. is a B.A., a B.A. (Hons) or a Postgraduate Diploma in German.⁸⁰³ For those students who gained entry with either of

⁸⁰¹ Majoring in German could take up to four years study if starting from beginners' level.

⁸⁰² In New Zealand papers are taught at different levels (100, 200, 300) with different levels of assessment and skills required at each level. 100 level papers are often the prerequisites for 200 level papers and the 200 papers for 300 level papers, etc.

⁸⁰³ Offered only at Otago University and comprising six papers at the 300 and 400 levels.

the latter two qualifications, an M.A. entails only one year of study. For all others it comprises two years of study.

The language acquisition course was and is usually compulsory for all Masters candidates, and most universities expect candidates to undertake some form of individual research in the form of a thesis or dissertation, for instance.

The trend towards declining numbers of students continuing onto graduate study in German is evident in the declining number of Master's theses submitted since the mid 1980s. The reduction in the number of Master's theses submitted is, however, at least in part due also to changes in the structure of the Master's degree, that is, the increasing number of taught papers offered for the degree. The number of B.A. (Hons) theses submitted, on the other hand, has increased at most universities during the same period (Obermayer 1993).

New Zealand students continuing on to postgraduate studies, i.e. a *PhD*, were required to have completed an M.A. or a Bachelor's degree with first or second class honours. They were and are required to undertake research under the direction of a number of supervisors for a period of at least two years.⁸⁰⁴ At the conclusion of this, they are required to submit a thesis. The majority of the doctoral theses completed during the past two decades were concerned with literary topics. It should be noted, however, that very few students undertook doctoral studies during this period. Between 1980 and 1992, no PhD theses were completed at the Universities of Auckland, Canterbury and Massey. Four were completed at the University of Otago in the 1980s and one in the early 1990s. One PhD was completed in the early 1990s at Victoria University and at the University of Waikato, three were completed in the early to mid 1980s (Obermayer 1993: 18-19, 31, 36).⁸⁰⁵ Between 1993 and 1997 three PhDs were completed at Auckland University, two on literary topics and one on Middle High German Language and Literature. During the same period two more were completed at Otago University. In 1998 two PhDs in Germanic literature were completed at the University of Auckland and one at the University of Otago. In 1999 two were submitted at Auckland and one at Victoria University (Klemp 1993, 1997, 1999, 2000). This study and another (from which the candidate has since withdrawn) in the more applied aspects of the discipline were started in the late 1990s at the University of Waikato.

The details of the degree structures at universities in New Zealand and any changes in these during the past two decades are summarised as follows:

⁸⁰⁴ Most doctoral candidates require a minimum of three years to complete their thesis.

⁸⁰⁵ Cf. Kirkus-Lamont 1989, 1993.

The University of Auckland:

Students majoring in German at the undergraduate level during the mid 1980s were required to complete one language paper and one literature paper at the 100 level, and one language paper and two literature papers at each of the 200 and 300 levels. Students enrolling in German at the 100 level were divided, according to their prior knowledge of the language, into streams (*Auckland University Calendar* 1987: 164-65). With the exception of those students with no previous knowledge of German, the streams each received five hours of teaching per week. Those with no previous knowledge of German had a different syllabus and prescribed texts from the rest of the class and received a total of six teaching hours per week. The language and literature papers were linked corequisites and a candidate's result was determined over both papers. At the 200 and 300 levels a candidate's results were decided on the three (language and literature) papers.

In 1996/1997 students were required to complete one language paper and one literature paper at the 100 level, one language paper, one literature paper and either one literature or linguistics paper at the 200 level, and one language paper and either two literature papers or one literature and one linguistics papers at the 300 level. With the introduction of the points system at Auckland, undergraduate courses were given a two-point value. Level 100 to 300 courses had an average of three teaching hours per week during the 1990s. (Some language courses also required two laboratory or tutorial hours.)

By 1996/1997 most German courses at Auckland University were taught in semester units, with one semester being equivalent to one course or paper. Previous to this most courses were taught over the full academic year. Some language courses as well as graduate level dissertations and theses remained as double semester or full-year courses. Each semester was approximately twelve teaching weeks long.

The University of Auckland offered only the M.A. at the graduate level during the period concerned. In 1986/1987 this comprised seven papers including the Language Acquisition paper and six others *or* five papers (including the language paper) and a thesis, the equivalent of two papers. By 1996/1997 graduate papers at Auckland had been predominantly semesterised and a points system had been introduced. All Masters or graduate level courses, except the advanced language course (a 2 semester, 4 point paper), the theses (14 points, 40 000 words *or* 10 points, 30 000 words) and dissertation (6 points, 15,000 words) had a two point value. The requirements for a Master's degree were either **(a)** papers totaling 14 points plus a thesis worth 14 points *or* **(b)** papers totaling 18 points and a thesis worth 10 points *or* **(c)** papers totaling 22 points and a dissertation worth 6 points. These papers and the research component were normally completed during a two-

year period. Courses at the graduate or 700 level had either two or three teaching hours per week.

The University of Canterbury:

In 1986/1987 students majoring in German at the undergraduate level were required to complete one language and one literature or culture/history course in each of the three years of study. The undergraduate level language courses had two or three teaching hours per week. The literature and culture/history courses had an average of two teaching hours per week. A points system was used at the University of Canterbury between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997 (and continues to be used today). All undergraduate courses offered were worth six points each, regardless of whether they were semester or whole year courses.

In 1996/1997 a B.A. at Canterbury required a total of 102 points (or 17 courses). To major in German students needed twelve points (or two courses) at the 300 level and all the necessary prerequisite courses leading to the chosen two 300 level papers. From this it would appear that what is entailed in a course at Canterbury University is 'notionally' more than at other universities given that students can major in German with only six courses as compared with the average of eight required at most other universities. In 1996/1997 language courses had an average of three teaching hours per week with the beginners' and intermediate streams receiving four contact hours per week. All other courses at the undergraduate level had two teaching hours on average per week regardless of whether the courses were full year or semester courses. However, most courses were full-year courses as opposed to semester courses.

During the past two decades the regulations for the B.A. (Hons) at Canterbury have remained unchanged: namely four graduate level papers *or* three papers and an extended essay. The requirements for the Master's degree have changed slightly. In 1986 the M.A. degree comprised six graduate level papers *or* five papers and an extended essay *or* four papers and a thesis. In 1987 Masters candidates were required to complete four papers and a thesis. In 1996/1997 Masters candidates completed their degree in two parts: (i) four taught graduate level papers in the first year of study, and (ii) a thesis in their second year of study. Candidates who had already completed a B.A (Hons) in German could be admitted to an M.A. comprising a thesis only. No information was available or received as to the number of contact or teaching hours for courses at the graduate level in 1986/1987 or 1996/1997.

Massey University:

German at Massey University changed from the papers system to the point system between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997. Each undergraduate level paper now has a value of fifteen points, while graduate papers have a value of twenty-five points each. However, the actual

number of papers required for a major in German within a B.A. (eight) did not change. Students majoring in German were required to complete at least two papers (thirty points) at the 100 level and three papers (forty-five points) at each of the 200 and 300 levels. The section began to teach some courses in semester units in 1997. In 1996/1997 students enrolled in 100 to 300 level courses had an average of three contact hours per course per week regardless of whether the course was a full-year or semester length course.

Despite the introduction of the points system, the regulatory requirements for the B.A. (Hons) and the M.A. degrees in German remained essentially the same during the period concerned. In 1986/1987 a B.A (Hons) comprised four papers plus a research essay with the value of one paper. An M.A. in German comprised five papers plus a thesis with a value of three papers. In 1996/1997 the B.A. (Hons) comprised three papers plus a research essay worth twenty-five points and an M.A. in German comprised papers to the value of 100 points plus a thesis worth 100 points. All graduate level papers were worth 25 points each.

Otago University:

For B.A. students the requirements for a major in German in 1986/1987 were two papers in either language and literature or language and civilisation at the 100 level, and three papers (one language and two literature) each at the 200 and 300 levels. Each level also included an oral examination as part of the assessment process. B.A. (Hons) students were required to complete the core 100 level papers as above, and then five papers including language study and four others in literature at the 200 level. One of these could be replaced by an essay in German. They were required to complete twelve papers in total and an oral examination at the 300 and 400 levels. Three (one language and two literature) of these twelve were compulsory. B.A. (Hons) students were also required to complete a dissertation (with a value equivalent to two papers) at the 400 level. The other possible courses included a number of optional literature and civilisation courses, 'Special Topics' in language, literature, civilisation, a literary criticism paper and individual research.

Students in 1996/1997, who intended to major in German within a B.A. were again required to take the prescribed language and literature courses. The requirements for a major in German were one language paper and one literature paper at the 100 level, and one language paper and two literature papers at each of the 200 and 300 levels.

The requirements for a major in German within a B.A. (Hons) during the 1990s were the same as for the B.A. at the 100 level (i.e. the core courses, which focused on the study of language and literature). In the second year of study students were required to complete one language paper, two compulsory literature papers and three or four additional papers in the subject of student's choice. B.A. (Hons) students were required to complete the language paper, two compulsory literature papers and three further German papers from the

Honours options in the third year of study, the 'Oral German' paper, a dissertation and three further papers from the Honours options in the fourth year of study. B.A. (Hons) students in 1996/1997 were also required to complete a dissertation (worth sixteen points or the equivalent of two papers) at the 400 level. The possible elective courses included literature courses, 'Essays in German', an 'Introduction to Germanistik', civilisation courses and Special Topics (some with predetermined topics). This meant those students opting for a B.A. (Hons) in 1996/1997 were offered a slightly greater range of options than in 1986/1987.

By 1996/1997 100 to 200 level courses had a value of six points, 300 to 400 level papers had a value of eight points, while the 400 level dissertation had a value of sixteen points. Both in 1986/1987 and 1996/1997 the mainstream language courses were whole-year or double semester courses, as were most other courses. (Some courses were semesterised due to a staff member being on sabbatical, something that is evident at all the universities.)

The requirements for graduate study in German remained unchanged throughout the period concerned. Following the three-year B.A. degree students who had majored in German could enrol in a year long Postgraduate Diploma in German. This comprised six 300 and 400 level papers. Students could also enrol in a two-year Master's programme consisting of the fourth year requirements of the B.A. (Hons) ('Oral German', a dissertation and three 300 and or 400 level papers) and a thesis. Those students who had already completed a B.A. (Hons) or a Postgraduate Diploma could complete the Master's programme by way of a thesis only in one year. The courses offered at the graduate level during the period concerned were those courses offered for the third and fourth years of the B.A. (Hons).

Victoria University:

At Victoria University the requirements for a major in German at the undergraduate level did not change in any significant way during the past two decades. In 1986/1987 36 credits (the equivalent of six papers) in German were required, including the language paper at the 200 and 300 levels and six further credits (or one paper) at the 300 level. In 1996/1997 24 credits in German courses at the 200 and 300 levels were required, including the language courses and either German literature or 'German Economy, Society and Culture'. This essentially meant that a major in German comprised 36 credits or six courses, as the 100 level language paper and literature or 'German Economy, Society and Culture' papers were prerequisites of the 200 level papers and, therefore, de facto compulsory.

The courses offered by the department in 1986/1987 were all full-year or two semester courses. In 1996/97, however, the courses were a combination of full-year and semester courses. All undergraduate language courses were full-year courses while the literature and cultural papers were one semester long. Contact or teaching hours per course averaged three to four hours per week in 1986/1987 and in 1996/1997.

The regulatory requirements for the B.A. (Hons) and M.A. degrees have remained essentially the same throughout the period concerned. In 1986/1987 a B.A. (Hons) comprised five graduate level papers (including the language paper), one or two of which could be replaced by individual research. An M.A. comprised a thesis with a maximum of 30 000 words. In 1996/1997 the requirements for a B.A. (Hons) remained the same. Masters candidates were required to complete: (i) the same as the requirements for the B.A. (Hons), and (ii) a thesis over two years of study. Those students enrolling in a Master's degree having already completed a B.A. (Hons) were required to complete only the thesis.

The University of Waikato:

The regulatory requirements for a major in German within the B.A. at Waikato did not change significantly between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997. Students majoring in German throughout the period were required to complete eight courses in German. This usually meant students took two courses at the 100 level (one language and one literature) and three courses each at the 200 and 300 levels (one language at each level and either two literature or one literature and one other course, such as contemporary issues in 1996/1997).

The structural requirements of an M.A. changed from six papers in 1986/1987 to eight papers by 1996/1997. The requirements for a B.A. (Hons) have also remained the same: the completion of four graduate level papers *or* three papers and a directed research or dissertation (equivalent to one paper).

During the period concerned, most courses offered by the department/section were full-year or double semester courses despite the overall trend at the University of Waikato to semesterise all papers. All language courses offered had an average of three teaching hours per week, as did most other undergraduate courses. Graduate level courses had an average of two teaching hours per week with the exception of the language course, which had three teaching hours per week.

III.4.2 Introduction to individual German Departments/Sections:

In the *Department of Germanic Languages & Literatures at the University of Auckland* the learning of the German language was (in 1997) "placed in a wider cultural, especially literary context. As a matter of policy, knowledge of and competence in the foreign language concerned is the basis for the study of the humanities, especially at the advanced level; courses using texts in English translation are generally available at the first year level only."⁸⁰⁶ The undergraduate programme in German at Auckland during the 1990s aimed to "provide students with a progressive course in written and spoken standard German [...] and to introduce them to [...] three main areas of German studies: literature, linguistics and

⁸⁰⁶ Cf. <http://www.auckland.ac.nz/ger/introduc.htm> (17 September 1997).

medieval studies. The main emphasis throughout the programme is on German language acquisition and German literature in the 19th and especially 20th centuries.”⁸⁰⁷

Owing to the constraints of staff numbers, the Department offers a full Masters programme only in German, whereas undergraduate programmes are available in German, Dutch and Scandinavian Studies. The staff are qualified to teach and supervise at both the graduate and the postgraduate (or doctoral) levels in “the three main subdisciplines of *Germanistik: Literaturwissenschaft, Linguistik und Mediävistik*. [Graduate] students are recommended to include papers from all three areas in their course [of study] in addition to language acquisition, which is compulsory for non-native speakers.”⁸⁰⁸

In February 1995, the Department became part of the new School of European Languages & Literatures, which also includes the Departments of French, Italian, Russian and Spanish. This essentially administrative change (Lopdell 1995: 133) was intended to encourage and facilitate future development(s) in (amongst other things) European Studies.

The research interests of the staff members in 1997 included 19th and 20th century literature (especially the poetry of Rilke, the *Kinder- und Hausmärchen* of the Grimm Brothers, Th. Mann, Fontane, Andersch and Walser), German-New Zealand relations, Middle High German language and literature, the correspondence between Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm, aspects of teaching methodology (especially teaching with video segments, transfer and communicative grammar teaching), German lexicology, lexicography and language history, applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, languages in contact, modern German prose writers (particularly Peter Handke), the connection between New Zealand and Austria in the 19th century, the relationships between English and German literature and computers in the Humanities. These staff research interests correlated directly to the departmental teaching programme at Auckland.⁸⁰⁹ One major difference from mid 1980s (also reflected in changes in the teaching programme) is the departure of Professor Asher, who researched and taught Middle High German language and literature.

The ***Department of German at the University of Canterbury*** offered courses in three areas: German language acquisition, German literary texts and literature and society in both 1986/1987 and 1996/1997.⁸¹⁰ In the 1990s, however, due to the reduced numbers of students enrolling in German, the Department felt that it had to concentrate on language courses as the central part of its teaching programme. This trend was evident in the teaching programme offered in 1996/1997. Most of the staff members originally taught

⁸⁰⁷ Cf. <http://www.auckland.ac.nz/ger/german.htm> (17 September 1997).

⁸⁰⁸ Cf. <http://www.auckland.ac.nz/ger/master.htm> (17 September 1997).

⁸⁰⁹ The courses offered by the German departments/sections in New Zealand and the changes in the teaching programmes between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997 have tended (in most cases) to reflect the staff research interests at the time or have been influenced by the staff research interests. However, one must be careful in assuming this as increasingly departments have been faced with shortages of resources and reductions in staffing levels and have, therefore, had to make decisions as to which courses are vital for a major or a programme in German.

⁸¹⁰ Courses in the third area were (and are) taught entirely in English.

literature, for which, however, there has been an apparent reduction in demand during the period concerned.⁸¹¹ In addition to focusing on the teaching of the language, the Department has attempted in recent years to adapt and strengthen the cultural component of its offerings (for which no knowledge of German is necessary) in order to attract and retain students (Bartholomae 1990: 403-409; Lopdell 1995: 147).

There appears to have been a direct correlation between some of the staff research interests and the teaching programme at the time (including the emphasis on the 20th century literature and social history). In 1997 the research interests of the staff in German at Canterbury included cultural theory, intercultural relationships (USA, England, Germany), the theory of discourse, intertextuality, conventions and innovations in modern literature, plagiarism and originality, the motives of the anti-social in modern literature, satire and irony in fiction, terrorism, poetry in the GDR, the FRG, Austria and the Netherlands, East German literature, medieval literature and society, diachronic linguistics, translation theory and practice, Stefan Heym, Julius von Haast, the German classical philosophy of *Bildung*, the *Bildungsroman*, Goethe's nature studies, the cultural history of Berlin from 1820 to the period after the German unification, comparative literature studies, Naturalism, environmental movements and *Reiseliteratur*.

Throughout the past two decades the ***German Section of the Department of European Languages at Massey University*** has regarded their main task in the academic sense to teach German language, literature and culture, although the actual emphasis was on language and literature. This was reflected by the 1996/1997 teaching programme in particular with language courses offered from beginners' to the *KDS* level and a core literature programme at all levels. The Section's teaching programme has been dramatically reduced during the past two decades due to a lack of teaching staff and a lack of apparent interest and demand on the students' part.⁸¹² It should also be noted that over half of the Department's roll is extramural, that is, students studying by correspondence (Department of European Languages 1997: 7).

The Department of European Languages, of which the German Section is part, was established in 1993 when the former Department of Modern Languages was reorganised to form three departments: European Languages (French and German), East Asian Studies (Chinese and Japanese) and Linguistics and Second Language Teaching. Spanish was introduced to European Languages in 1996, and in 1998 the Department introduced a new major in European Studies.

⁸¹¹ Cf. R. Fisher (University of Canterbury), *Personal correspondence*, 13 February 1998.

⁸¹² In fact, postgraduate studies will no longer be possible if the present shortage of staff persists. In 1998, for instance, there were only two academic staff members teaching German at Massey University (A. Vieregg (Massey University), *Personal correspondence*, 11 March 1998).

The German Section at Massey had three academic staff members as at November 1997, whose research interests included German literature and history of 19th and 20th centuries, the literary genres and modern literature (especially modern lyric poetry). A degree of correlation clearly existed between the staff research interests and the literary papers in the teaching programme (such as modern literature, 19th and 20th century literature).

Within the *Department of German Language and Literature at Otago University* in 1996/1997 “all the staff [were] involved in all levels of teaching, both in language and literature courses. Staff and students tend to know each other quite well. Class sizes range from 15 to 50 but smaller classes predominate. Consequently [...] greater use of seminar and group styles of teaching [was made] rather than straight lecturing, [thereby] maximising interaction between staff and students.”⁸¹³

In 1994 the Department became part of the School of Languages, a move that was regarded by the Department as having a negative effect on the identities of individual departments (Lopdell 1995: 151).

The study of German at Otago differed (and continues to differ) from the study of German at other New Zealand universities in that the students had the choice of either continuing with the normal three-year B.A. or enrolling in more German courses in their second and third years of study and in a dissertation in the fourth year of study in order to graduate with a B.A. (Hons) in German. Other unique characteristics of German at Otago during the 1990s include the concentration on the 20th century in the 200 level courses offered, the wider emphasis on the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries in the third year of study, the inclusion of the literatures and cultures of the three main German-speaking countries, Germany, Austria and Switzerland, and the focus of literature courses on a particular topic or theme (such as women as the subject and object of the literature of the turn of the century) (Lopdell 1995: 151). The latter two characteristics are evident to a degree in the programmes of the other universities, but not as prominently as at Otago. For instance, Auckland's 1996/1997 contemporary literature course examined the literary trends in the 1980s and 1990s in German-speaking countries.

Lopdell (1995: 151) also explained that although language at Otago could be studied independently of literature, the three components of ‘traditional’ German study, language, literature and civilisation were closely linked. A separate civilisation course was offered in 1996/1997 at the 100 level, but at the 200 and 300 levels the study of literature was rooted in the cultural and regional context.

⁸¹³ Cf. <http://www.otago.ac.nz/German/HeimatFrame.html> (18 September 1997).

In 1996/1997 at least there was a correlation between the staff research interests and the teaching programme, in that there was an emphasis on drama, poetry and the novel in the teaching programme. The research interests of the German staff members at Otago at that time included literary theory, poetics, stylistics, narrative forms, dramatic forms and rhetoric, Austrian literature (especially Grillparzer, Nestroy, Raimund, Musil, Kafka, Broch, Joseph Roth and Gerhard Roth), the periods of Realism, expressionism and *Jugendstil*, modern drama, women's literature at the turn of the century, German literature of Goethe's time, *Fin de siècle*, Eduard von Keyserling, Ch. Wolf, *Vaterliteratur*, German literature of 19th and 20th centuries, the *Märchen* and computer assisted language teaching methods (CALL).

The **German Section at Victoria University** is, like most German Departments/Sections at New Zealand Universities, relatively small, an attribute that appears to have facilitated a relatively informal atmosphere for the teaching and learning of the German language, literature and culture. In the early 1990s the language departments at Victoria - German, French, Spanish, Italian and Russian - were restructured into the School of European Languages, a move which facilitated the introduction of a major in Modern Languages (comprising courses in two languages and linguistics) and a major in European Studies, in addition to majors in the individual languages themselves.

The major in European Studies within the B.A. comprises three language courses up to the 300 level plus 3 other non-language papers. Core courses include 'Introduction to European Studies' at the 100 level and 'The Making of Modern Europe' at the 300 level. Other courses from other departments or subject areas which may be taken as part of this comparative programme include 'European Tragedy', 'Early Modern Europe', 'Comparative Politics: Europe' and 'The Renaissance'.⁸¹⁴ This is an interdisciplinary major, but the depth of area knowledge gained from this must be questioned as six courses is a relatively small number of courses, especially as three of these are language courses. Admittedly if these six courses are 34 teaching weeks long then these courses are longer in terms of teaching time than courses at other universities in New Zealand.

Students majoring in German were recommended to enrol in both the literature and the 'Economy, Society & Culture' streams as a means of broadening the scope of their German Studies and of determining what the main focus of their later studies should be. Graduate study was only possible as an extension of the literature stream.

As at November 1997, the German Section at Victoria comprised five academic staff members, whose research interests included drama, lyric poetry, comparative literature, language teaching methodology, literature and the national identity, Gustav Mahler, Richard Wagner, the novel, the relationship of literature and music, Medieval literature, Grabbe's

⁸¹⁴ Cf. Smith 1997: 70-71; <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/home/undergraduate/subjects/eurl.html> (6 March 2001); School of European Languages 2000.

dramas, German theatre in 19th and 20th centuries, the history of German immigrants in New Zealand, East German literature and women's literature. A correlation between the research interests of the departmental staff and the teaching programme would appear to have existed in that the literary courses offered reflected the research interests of staff members.

In 1986/1987 the three major objectives of the ***German Department at the University of Waikato*** were: the furthering of competence in spoken and written German, the promotion of an understanding of Germany's literature and also of its history and culture within the European context." (University of Waikato 1986: 225)

In 1997 the Section's major objectives had changed slightly to: (i) the furthering of competence in spoken and written German, (ii) the promotion of an understanding of German literature and civilisation within the European context, and (iii) the introduction to aspects of German and European society, political, economic and educational systems (Knüfermann 1993a). Courses offered in the Section covered a wide range of topics within the broad areas of language studies, German literature and civilisation, contemporary issues (including European and German social, political and economic issues) and German as a foreign language (*DaF*).

The German Department was directly involved in the development of the International Management Programme (IMP) at the university in the early 1990s,⁸¹⁵ and in January 1997 the German subject area became part of the newly created 'Department of European and Hispanic Studies' along with the former Department of Romance Languages (French and Spanish). This structural change reflected more than an administrative re-organisation. It emphasised an integrated approach to area studies, allowing students to familiarise themselves not only with a region's languages, literatures and cultures, but also with the complex political, social and economic aspects of a major geographical region. It also reflected the growing importance of the European Region - as a political partner, as a bilateral trading partner, a source of investment and as a source of cultural stimulus to New Zealand (Department of European & Hispanic Studies 1997: 7).⁸¹⁶

Another interesting point was the direct correlation in a number of instances between the staff research interests and the teaching programme during the past two decades. German staff research interests in 1986/1987 at the Waikato included late classical medieval literature, 17th, 19th and 20th century literature and cultural history and Meckel. This was reflected in the courses offered on medieval literature, 19th and 20th century literature and Meckel's poetry and prose.

⁸¹⁵ Cf. Knüfermann 1993: 514.

⁸¹⁶ Cf. Knüfermann 1998b: 274-277.

In 1996/1997 staff research interests included early German romantics (Novalis, Friedrich and Schlegel), exile literature (Wolfskehl and Lasker-Schüler), East German literature, 19th and 20th century German literature, cultural history, contemporary European issues, intercultural German Studies and *DaF*, curriculum research, film synchronisation, the reception of New Zealand films in Germany as well as the films of Wim Wenders, Expressionism, German literature since 1945, Middle High German language and literature, the biography of a 19th century German missionary in New Zealand and *die Gruppe 47 und die Politik*. These interests were reflected in the courses offered on East German literature, contemporary European and German issues, *DaF* and film and literature.

Extramural activities formed an important part of the study of German throughout the period concerned and the range of opportunities for students to utilise their language (and other) skills outside of formal study increased during the past two decades. All departments/sections offered their students a number of opportunities to live, study and or work in German-speaking countries. The German Section at Waikato, for example, offers its students a Vacation Work Scheme, where students work in the Hospitality Industry in the Black Forest.

Students were also encouraged to participate in regular subject committee meetings, which served as a forum for the exchange of views and ideas between staff members and students and facilitated the formal discussion of students' questions, suggestions and grievances concerning courses and relevant extramural matters.

Students were awarded various prizes (e.g. *Eichelbaum*) and or scholarships of various tenures (from the *DAAD*, *Goethe-Institut* and German, Swiss and Austrian governments). They were also encouraged to take part in Teaching Assistantships at German high schools or work placements in international firms, to attend *Goethe-Institut* courses and to join the conversation groups and departmental sports teams. Students were asked to participate in University Open and Information Days and to promote the study of languages during visits to secondary schools.

They were also given the chance to attend seminars by visiting academics, to be members of German or Austrian clubs, theatre groups or choirs, to attend film evenings and performances by visiting German music and theatre groups, to attend German Camps, department social evenings and dinners and the local Goethe Society meetings or activities. The Department of German at Otago also published its own series of monographs, *Otago German Studies* and *The European Connection* journal, which provided a forum for academic and literary writing by students, graduates and staff members.

Between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997 there was an increasing tendency for departments/sections to emphasise these extramural activities, particularly the opportunities for overseas travel, work and study, as 'drawcards' to students choosing whether to study German or not.

III.4.3 Comparative analysis of the trends in German Studies at New Zealand Universities: the impact of reforms, re-orientation and restructuring.

III.4.3.1 Institutional reforms and restructuring during the past two decades.

As previously outlined, the wider political and economic re-orientation and the reforms in the education sector have impacted in a variety of ways, often negative, on the German Studies discipline in New Zealand. (These reforms have had a similar effect on other Humanities and Social Science disciplines during the same period.) Issues, which have directly affected the relatively small departments, include the government's focus on the Asian-Pacific region that has resulted in increased competition from the Asian languages, student (and market or employer) demand for vocationally-oriented courses as tuition fees increase, the decline in available resources for European languages and in the staffing levels at most universities and the decline in the number of students learning German at the secondary school level.⁸¹⁷

Despite the impact of these reforms on the framework of the discipline, German Studies programmes were (and continue to be) offered at six universities in New Zealand. Structural and curriculum changes have, however, occurred in all six German departments/sections in response to the institutional reforms and restructuring during the past two decades. Five of the six German departments have adapted to these changes and the associated pressures by amalgamating with other (mainly European) language, literature and linguistics departments. At the University of Auckland, for instance, the School of European Languages & Literatures was formed in February 1995 and comprises the French, Germanic Languages & Literature, Italian, Russian and Spanish Departments. A similar development occurred at Victoria University in Wellington. At Massey University, the Department of European Languages was established in 1993 and comprised French and German. Spanish was introduced in 1996. At Otago University, the German Department became part of the School of Languages in 1994. Further restructuring at Otago has since seen German become part of the School of Language, Literature and Performing Arts. The German Department at the University of Waikato became part of the Department of European & Hispanic Studies along with French and Spanish in 1997.

The individual departments usually had little choice about amalgamating with other departments as the level of available resources essentially meant they were forced to either amalgamate or face dissolution. The amalgamations, however, have enabled the departments/sections to continue to exist and have facilitated (or were coupled with) the

⁸¹⁷ Cf. Johnson 2000: 236-239.

introduction of new majors (such as Linguistics and Literature at Otago University) and or interdisciplinary programmes or courses (European Studies at Massey University and the University of Waikato, for example).

The German Department at the University of Canterbury is the only department that has remained a separate entity during the period concerned. However, the department has had to redefine itself and its programmes to remain 'attractive' to students. To achieve this the department has made two major changes in terms of overall departmental orientation during the period concerned. The first was the realisation that in a department largely dependent on language courses, specialised teaching skills are required. Previously all appointees were expected to adapt to language teaching without training or guidance. The second change has been the appointment of a staff member to develop courses in German cultural studies, for which no knowledge of the German language is necessary, in order to adapt the Department's offerings to retain and attract more students.⁸¹⁸

The ongoing, and sometimes ad hoc, nature of the reforms and restructuring has increased the uncertainty for the relatively small German departments/sections and this has had a flow-on effect to the teaching programmes and students. The available resources (financial, staffing, support services, etc.) have declined drastically. At Massey and Otago Universities in particular the level of staffing has declined dramatically during the past two decades. Student interest too in language degrees has waned due mainly to the perceived lack of vocational application of these programmes when compared to a degree in Management Studies, for example.

There has also been a general reduction in the number of courses, particularly the number of literature courses, the departments/sections were able to offer during the period concerned, the exception being at Auckland University, which has the largest German Studies programme in New Zealand. The 'variety' of the courses offered, however, appears to have increased to counter the decrease in the number of courses offered. For instance, the departments/sections have introduced more language courses leading to the attainment of internationally recognised certificates in language proficiency, literature and culture courses taught in English (or in both English and German) and a number of courses in German and European contemporary issues.

Another institutional trend that has impacted on the German Studies programmes has been the semesterisation of courses and changes in the length of the academic year. Most universities in New Zealand have introduced the semesterisation of courses during the past ten years. One reason for this was to increase the flexibility of entry times into tertiary level

⁸¹⁸ Cf. Smith 1988: 68-72; Bartholomae 1990; R. Fisher (University of Canterbury), *Personal correspondence*, 13 February 1998.

education. At the same time the number of teaching weeks in the academic year⁸¹⁹ has tended to reduce marginally. In 1986/1987 most universities had 25 or 26 teaching weeks. By 1996/1997 four out of the six had 24 teaching weeks, one had 26, and Victoria had introduced a trimester system with a total of 34 weeks per annum.

The number of teaching (or contact) hours per course per week varied considerably between the universities during the period concerned. The number of teaching hours per week was (and continues to be) dependent on the level of the course (undergraduate or graduate), the length of course (full-year or one semester), the type of course (language, literature, film or culture) and on the staff numbers available. Undergraduate language courses averaged three contact hours, with beginners' courses averaging four to five hours per week. Courses in literature averaged three contact hours per week during the past two decades. Courses in culture, civilisation and or contemporary issues averaged two contact hours per course per week throughout the period concerned. Graduate level courses had two to three contact hours per week (mainly for language courses).

The mode of delivery (full-year or one semester) was (and is) the determining factor as regards the academic outcome(s) of a particular course. For instance, if an undergraduate literature course was listed at the University of Waikato as being a full-year course (comprising 26 teaching weeks) with three contact hours per week in 1986/1987, the total number of contact hours would have been 78. If the same course was offered in 1996/1997 as a semester course (on average 12 teaching weeks) with the same amount of teaching hours per week, the total number of contact hours would have been 36. The effects of this trend on the academic quality and content of the course are clear.

If the texts listed as required readings were the same in both years (which was the case with some courses at the universities in this study), the question must be asked as to the possible depth of study of these texts and the amount of preparation time students would have. In some cases anecdotal evidence suggests that the increased workload (of attempting to prepare the same number of texts for a course with only half the contact hours) has discouraged students from enrolling in the literature papers and the programme overall. However, the departments/sections have virtually no influence on such structural changes as these are institutional decisions.

While no significant changes have occurred in the structure of the Humanities degrees offered by New Zealand universities between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997, there were (and are) differences in the number of papers required for a major in German at the undergraduate level between the different universities. On average a major consisted of

⁸¹⁹ An academic year in New Zealand comprises teaching weeks, study breaks, examinations and semester breaks. In addition to the main two semesters, many universities had introduced a summer school semester (e.g. Waikato), but the foreign languages departments have tended not to offer courses during summer school.

eight papers, the exception being at Canterbury and Victoria, where students were required to complete six papers for a major. This again raises the question of the comparability of the students' depth of knowledge and of the teaching programmes. At the graduate level, however, the structural requirements for German Studies appeared to be on a par nationally and almost always require(d) students to include both taught courses and individual or directed research of some kind in their programme of study.

Despite the impact of the reforms and restructuring, all six universities offered German Studies programmes at the undergraduate level and at the graduate level throughout the period concerned, although most commented that the decline in available resources, staffing levels and student demand has led to only relatively small numbers of students continuing on to graduate level study of German, particularly at Massey and Canterbury Universities.⁸²⁰ From the personal correspondence the author has received, this would appear to be consistent across all levels of graduate study, where overall numbers of students declined during the period concerned. Although students appear to have felt that graduate study was necessary, they have tended to take the shortest possible graduate level qualification due to the increasing costs.

III.4.3.2 Changes in the emphasis of programmes offered.⁸²¹

In response to the changing environment in which the discipline in New Zealand operates, the emphasis of a major in German itself has changed at some universities during the past two decades. The most significant changes have occurred at Auckland and Waikato. The emphasis of a major in German at the University of Auckland has shifted from one comprising language, literature and culture courses (the 'traditional' Germanistik major) to either a major in language and literature or a major in language, literature and linguistics/philology in 1996/1997. German at the University of Waikato has moved from a major focused primarily on language and literature/culture in 1986/1987 (whereby the cultural studies courses offered encompassed at least in part the issues facing 'modern' Germany) to a major in language, literature and contemporary social, political, economic and educational German and European issues.

German at Canterbury has changed from a major in language and literature to a slightly broader major in language, literature and culture. The line between the literature and cultural papers is, however, somewhat blurred by the changes in the content and type of literary course offered). During the past decade in particular the department has focused on consolidating its position and adapting many of its literary and cultural courses to allow students with no knowledge of German to take these courses.

⁸²⁰ Cf. Bartholomae 1990.

⁸²¹ See Appendix Six for a list of all courses offered by the six departments/sections during the test period.

The focus of a major in German at Massey University and at Otago University has remained on language, literature and cultural courses during the period concerned. While the emphasis of the courses offered for a major in German at Massey has remained on language and literature (and cultural) papers at the undergraduate level, the reduction in number of literary courses offered from seven or eight in 1986/1987 to four in 1996 and two in 1997 and the introduction of courses in German Film, Modern Germany and European Civilisation indicates a de facto shift in departmental orientation towards the more contemporary, non-literary aspects of German Studies. However, these changes cannot be attributed entirely to a shift in emphasis or orientation as the former Head of German at Massey pointed to a dramatic reduction in the level of staffing and to a reduction in students' interest that occurred during the period concerned. This no doubt impacted profoundly on the number of literary/cultural courses offered by the German Section at Massey, as in other universities.⁸²²

No significant reorientation in a major in German has occurred at Victoria University either. Students majoring in German in 1996/1997 as in 1986/1987 could major in language and literature or language and the German Economy, Society and Culture (comprising a mixture of historical and current facets of German political, social, economic, cultural and business life in the 19th and 20th centuries).⁸²³ The only other courses offered were the beginners' language course in 1986/1987 and the elementary German language courses in 1996/1997 for those students who had little or no prior knowledge of the German language. These courses, however, could not be included in the major. The introduction of majors in Modern Languages and European Studies (in addition to the major in German itself) is, however, evidence of a reorientation towards the more contemporary aspects of the discipline and towards offering a more diverse range of programmes.

Shifts in emphasis at the graduate level paralleled the changes at the undergraduate level at the University of Auckland with a move towards offering a greater number of options. For instance, M.A. candidates in German in 1986/1987 were able to take language and literature courses, a number of so-called 'Special Topics'⁸²⁴ in these fields, a dissertation and or a thesis. Ten years later in 1996/1997, however, candidates could take a combination of language, literature, linguistics and culture/civilisation courses, as well as a number of 'Special Topics' in German literature, Germanic Studies and German linguistics, a dissertation and or a thesis. All Masters and postgraduate research in 1986/1987 was in the

⁸²² Cf. A. Vieregg (Massey University), *Personal correspondence*, 11 March 1998.

⁸²³ Cf. Smith 1988: 65-68.

⁸²⁴ The term 'Special Topic' is used (somewhat arbitrarily!) in New Zealand to denote a variety of special courses focusing on a particular topic a staff member is interested in or researching or courses taught by, for example, visiting academics. This gives the department or staff concerned the freedom to introduce an essentially new course or topic without the need to go through the entire academic planning and approval process. The term is also increasingly used to denote a variety of individual or supervised research projects, although this is not strictly the true meaning of the term.

fields of literature, linguistics and film. Ten years later, research has diversified slightly to include the German connection with New Zealand.⁸²⁵

At Waikato the shift in emphasis from language and literature to language, literature and contemporary issues was reflected by the changes in the courses offered at the graduate level. Students undertaking an M.A. or a B.A. (Hons) in German in 1986/1987 were able to take language studies and literature papers. Individual research was also a recommended option. By 1996/1997 the graduate level teaching programme at Waikato included language, literature, contemporary issues, culture and history, film, *DaF* and *Interkulturelle Germanistik*. The range of graduate papers offered had increased dramatically from four taught papers plus a dissertation and a thesis to nine taught papers plus a report of an investigation, a 'Special Topic', a directed research project, a dissertation and a thesis. This broad range of areas of specialisation allowed graduates to tailor their programme of study to their interests and career prospects and allowed more scope for individual research and applied projects, even within the limitations of an M.A.

Due to the different degree structure at Otago, the changes in courses at the graduate level were the same as those at the undergraduate level. This meant that there was no significant shift in emphasis in graduate level study of German at Otago. The focus remained on language, literature and civilisation. At the other three universities, Canterbury, Massey and Victoria, no significant shift in the emphasis of the graduate level German programmes was evident. The focus of graduate level German at these universities remained on language and literature. At Canterbury, for example, the courses offered in 1986/1987 emphasised language skills, Middle High German language and literature, the three genres of German literature (with particular emphasis on the narrative forms), the study of German authors, comparative literary studies, German literature since 1945 and 'Special Topics' in German Literature. The only changes to this programme were the introduction in 1996 of 'A Study of a Modern Literary Period: *Fin de Siècle*' and a 'Film & Literature' course. In 1997 the only further topic area introduced was individual research in the area of German cultural studies.

There has also been little change in the emphasis of the courses offered at the graduate level at Massey University between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997 as essentially the same courses were offered throughout the period concerned. The focus remained on language, literature and individual research in the form of research essays or a thesis. At the graduate level also there is no evidence of a shift in orientation or emphasis at Victoria during this period as the courses offered also remained unchanged. Some topics (other than those offered at the undergraduate level), such as 'The History of the German Language' and 'Special Topics', were offered at this level.

⁸²⁵ Cf. M. Sutton (University of Auckland), *Personal correspondence*, 22 May 1998.

The re-orientation of the major and graduate level programmes in German at two universities, Auckland and Waikato, has enabled the inclusion of contemporary, non-literary aspects of the subject and vocational components, such as linguistics and *DaF*. At Auckland there would appear to have been a quite pronounced shift towards emphasising the contemporary, non-literary aspects of German Studies, although literature remains an integral part of both a major in German at the undergraduate level and the graduate programme. The introduction of courses in linguistics, the introduction of a 'Special Topic' on the German Connection (which introduced a component on contemporary German issues), the addition of courses aimed at specific (and non-traditional) target groups such as the 'German in Business' course and the increased number of language courses are all indications of this change.

The change in emphasis of the courses offered at Waikato directly reflected a shift in the department/section's philosophy from an emphasis on language and literature to an emphasis on language, literature and contemporary European issues.⁸²⁶ The reduction in the number of literary courses offered at this level and the introduction of courses in contemporary issues are evidence of this shift in orientation. At the graduate level, the courses offered have changed significantly from an emphasis on language and literature to include language, literature and contemporary German Studies. The introduction of applied projects has allowed students greater scope for research in several subdisciplines of Germanistik, including language, literature, linguistics, film and media and contemporary German and European issues. The introduction of *DaF* courses has enabled a number of German students to undertake the practical component of their degree as well as a range of other *DaF* papers at Waikato.

In addition to these shifts in emphasis there has been an increase in the number of courses taught in English between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997, particularly at the University of Canterbury. This change was designed to appeal to a broader range of students (including those from other disciplines), and thus to attract more EFTS. It was also thought that these students, having had a 'taste' of a foreign language, would enrol in other courses offered by the departments/sections.

In addition to the changes in emphasis of the programmes offered for a major in German during the past two decades, a number of the recently amalgamated departments introduced new majors. The School of Languages at Otago University introduced a major in Languages and Linguistics comprising the study of two or three languages and linguistics in 1995. This effectively means that students can study languages without the literature component (Lopdell 1995: 151). Victoria University introduced a major in Modern Languages (comprising two or more languages and linguistics) in the early 1990s, and a major in

⁸²⁶ This was also reflected in the establishment of the Department of European & Hispanic Studies in 1997.

European Studies (comprising three papers in a European language (one of French, German, Italian or Russian) and three other non-language papers with an European component (for instance, in history, geography, politics, literature) in 1996. One concern about the major in European Studies as it is structured at Victoria University, is that the programme comprises only six papers, three of which are language papers and the other three can be drawn from diverse subject areas. This raises the question of the depth of European area knowledge a graduate would have at the completion of their degree.

All six universities required students majoring in German to complete ***the language acquisition courses*** at all levels, including the graduate level, during the period concerned. *That is, the language courses were and are a core requirement of German Studies programmes in New Zealand.*

During the past two decades, the number and type of German language courses offered at the tertiary level have increased and diversified, particularly at Auckland University. There, students of German at the undergraduate level (particularly the 300 level) could undertake, for instance, a *Sprachpraktikum* designed to further develop and extend the skills of those students with already advanced written and oral skills, a course in 'German in Business' and another on 'Translation in Theory and Practice'. The texts for translation varied significantly in nature ranging from operative texts, such as recipes and advertisements, through informative and descriptive texts to literary works. At the graduate level, the number of courses offered has also increased to include a translation course in 1996, which focused on the theory, practice and critical evaluation of translation, principally of texts translated from German into English.

Attempts have also been made at several universities, particularly at Auckland and Canterbury, to cater for specific (non-traditional) target groups or to attract and retain students. The increase in the number and the diversity of these courses has also given those students majoring in German more options. From the early 1990s, the German Language: *Angewandte deutsche Linguistik* course (as it was entitled in 1996/1997) at the graduate level at Canterbury University focused on the analysis of foreign language learning processes and the practical application of language learning in defined areas such as language teaching and the use of German in the field of tourism.

Apart from the core language courses offered at each level, most universities offered beginners' or introductory level and elementary or intermediate language courses for those students with little or no prior language skills both in 1986/1987 and in 1996/1997. These courses focused on all language skills and were designed to suffice for everyday use in a German environment as well as form the basis for further academic study of German language, literature and culture.

By 1996/1997, in addition to the core language courses, students at most universities were able to sit the internationally recognised certificates of German language proficiency, *Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache*, *Kleines Deutsches Sprachdiplom* and *Großes Deutsches Sprachdiplom*. Students were prepared for these as part of the core language courses offered or in some cases through separate courses offered specifically for this purpose. For example, one requirement of the *KDS* is the writing of essays based on German fiction, the reason being the belief that “both oral and written expression can be trained by describing social and historical problems and psychological features in a fictional book”.⁸²⁷ In 1997 two novels, *Jauche und Levkojen* by Christina Brückner and *Das Feuerschiff* by Lenz, were studied as part of the 300 level language course at Canterbury. The inclusion of the opportunity to attain internationally recognised language proficiency certificates has permitted students’ individual abilities, entry levels and ambitions to be catered for.

The only shift discernible in how the language courses offered were taught is perhaps an explicit tendency in the 1990s to place more emphasis on the oral skills of students and on the active use of the language rather than on the grammar and written skills. Auckland University, for instance, introduced changes in its language teaching methods in the late 1980s by implementing the communicative approach to language teaching in Stage One classes. (This was extended to the language papers at the other levels in 1988.) Reasons for doing so included the introduction of a new secondary school syllabus and “the fact universities today are expected to provide not only a broad educational perspective, but also to put more emphasis on specific job-related skills.” (Stoffel 1988: 79) The subsequent introduction of language courses leading to the *ZDaF* and at the third year or Master’s level to the *KDS*, were thought to be advantageous to students in their future careers as these courses are independently assessed and internationally recognised. An interesting aspect of the undergraduate level language courses at Auckland in 1996/1997 is that the 300 level paper included the reading and discussion of three literary texts (Peter Härtling’s *Krücke*, Siegfried Lenz’s *Das Feuerschiff* and Joseph Roth’s *Das falsche Gewicht* in 1997).⁸²⁸

A further example of this focus on the active use of German is the graduate level ‘Advanced German Language’ course at Massey in 1997, which focused on oral work, written comprehension, flexibility of expression and analysis of contemporary texts. At Canterbury the 200 level language paper in 1996/1997 built on the 100 level course and included three units of work on German in tourism, journalism and the visual media. The 300 level course focused on the advanced study of the German language, including translation, grammar and texts from topical newspapers, magazine articles and television programmes. At Waikato students could further their reading and communication skills by taking the ‘The German State & the Media: Advanced Reading & Communication Skills’ course at the 200 level.

⁸²⁷ Cf. <http://www.grmn.canterbury.ac.nz/GRMN301.html> (17 September 1997).

⁸²⁸ Cf. <http://www.auckland.ac.nz/ger/german.htm> (17 September 1997).

It is, however, difficult to ascertain to what extent the actual course content and teaching methods have changed as departments (and indeed individual staff members) approach language teaching in diverse ways.⁸²⁹ Nevertheless, it would appear that departments in New Zealand placed (and continue to place) a particular emphasis on the active use of the language and undergraduate language learning is often supplemented by work in language laboratories and increasingly units or topics taught online.⁸³⁰

The Department of Germanic Languages and Literature at Auckland University was (and is) the only department in which students could study *German linguistics* as part of a major. This development was introduced during the period with which this study is concerned, primarily due to the appointment of a new staff member with expertise in German linguistics. By 1996/1997 several linguistics courses had been introduced, adding the further option of a major in language, literature *and* linguistics. This required students to complete the 'Language in Society' course at the 200 level which examined language change, development, use and variations in German-speaking countries today. Topics discussed included German as a pluricentric language in Europe, the relationship of the standard language to dialects and to languages for special purposes, changes in communication patterns and language developments in the community. The course was designed to complement the language acquisition courses with their emphasis on the use and structure of Standard German. The other required course for students majoring in linguistics was 'Lexicology and Lexicography'⁸³¹ at the 300 level which focused on the study of the vocabulary of modern Standard German with particular reference to its documentation and description in dictionaries of German.

Graduate level courses in 'German Lexicography' and the 'Linguistic Analysis of Contemporary Written German' were introduced in 1987. In 1996 two courses in lexicography were listed in the programme. By 1997 an increased number of courses in linguistics enabled those candidates, who had majored in language, literature and linguistics at the undergraduate level, to specialise further in German linguistics. These courses included one on lexicography and two on language history. One of these surveyed the history of the German language with special reference to development of Standard German in the New High German period. The other focused on an in-depth study of a particular topic, epoch or century in the history of New High German from the 15th century onwards. Two further courses in 'Contemporary German' were also offered. One focusing on the linguistic analysis of the grammatical structure of modern Standard German, especially the syntax, the other on the linguistic analysis of developmental trends in modern Standard German, especially the vocabulary.

⁸²⁹ Cf. Johnson 2000: 239-246.

⁸³⁰ Cf. Alm-Lequeux 1998.

⁸³¹ This course was titled 'Lexicography' in 1997.

Specific courses in linguistics were not offered at the undergraduate or graduate levels at any of the other five universities, however the departments/sections all encouraged those students majoring in German to include linguistics papers in their overall degree programme. In addition, Otago University's 'Introduction to Germanistik' course in 1996/1997 contained a component of linguistics. Canterbury University's graduate level German language course introduced students to the basics of general linguistics and the application of these to the German language system. Victoria University offered a graduate level course that introduced students to the history of the German language.

From this it would appear that German linguistics was not an integral part of German Studies in New Zealand between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997. The introduction of a major in language, literature and linguistics at Auckland University during the period concerned was, therefore, a significant shift. This shift could be regarded as a reflection of the need to diversify German Studies programmes to attract and retain students and of the need to give German Studies programmes a directly applicable or vocational flavour. The fact that the departments/sections encouraged students to include papers from the Linguistics departments' offerings in their programme of study indicates an awareness of the importance of a component of linguistics within German Studies (and the study of languages in general). However, the provision of such courses within most German departments/sections was not possible due to the level of resourcing (financial and staffing). This aspect of German Studies in New Zealand perhaps provides an opportunity for further research and development.

The study of German literature was (and is) an integral part of the German Studies programmes offered at New Zealand universities. Throughout the period 1986/1987 to 1996/1997, all six departments/sections required students majoring in German to complete a number of literature papers at the undergraduate level: usually one at the 100 level and two each at the 200 and 300 levels. The exception being at Canterbury and Victoria Universities where students were required to complete one literary paper at each level. Departments/sections normally stipulated a number of courses that were compulsory. At the graduate level, students were also required to complete a number of literary papers as part of their programme of study.

However, the literature courses offered by German departments/sections and the emphasis placed on these courses have changed in a number of ways during the period concerned. By 1996/1997, there had been a sometimes radical reduction in the number of literary courses offered at four of the six universities. Only Auckland University had increased its literary offerings, while the department at Victoria had not changed its literary courses in any major way. Dramatic reductions in the number of literary courses offered at two universities were due mainly to a severe cutback in staffing levels (at Massey University) and to a

significant shift in the departmental philosophy (at the University of Waikato). Other reasons given for these reductions included a decline in perceived student demand, the question of available resources and the overall rationalisation in the tertiary sector. This rationalisation included an attempt to reduce the number of small course enrolments, something that has directly affected the German Studies programmes. From personal correspondence the author has received, it would appear that many of the departments/sections felt they had little alternative other than to reduce the number of literary courses offered due to the external institutional factors. Others, as in the case of Waikato, made a conscience shift in the departmental orientation (although this too was prompted in part by the institutional restructuring and reforms). Despite the impact of factors such as these, the departments/sections attempted to cover as broad a range of literary periods and genre as was possible given the structural restrictions of a B.A.

Most universities offered a number of literature courses where the texts studied were in English or in both the original German and in translation, although increasingly departments/sections have offered courses for which no or little prior knowledge of the language is necessary. Massey University, for instance, offered its literature courses at the undergraduate level in English and German (using parallel texts) throughout the period concerned. The University of Canterbury taught some core literature courses in English in 1996/1997. There is a clear trend towards offering the literary courses in English in order to retain students, to maintain the students' interest in German literature and to attract students from other disciplines.⁸³²

It is difficult to determine an overall canon or syllabus⁸³³ for German departments/sections in New Zealand during the period concerned, as each operated independently from (and from the early 1990s onwards in competition with!) each other. Another reason it is particularly difficult to define an overall canon is that the number of literary courses offered by some universities in the 1990s is comparatively small. It would, however, appear that the departments tended to follow the traditional canon in the 1980s with an emphasis on covering the literary periods and genre. However, this has changed at a number of universities between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997, namely at Canterbury, Massey and Waikato.

German at Auckland would appear to have followed the 'traditional' canon as its literary offerings cover a selection of the literary periods, the three genre, authors and texts from the Middle Ages to the present. There was, however, an increased emphasis on 20th century literature in 1996/1997. Indications of this include the fact that by 1996/1997 Middle High German was no longer a core requirement for a major in German, a significant number of the

⁸³² Cf. Smith 1988: 68-69; Bartholomae 1990: 405-410.

⁸³³ Hawthorn (1998: 32) defines 'canon' as being "a list of works set apart from other literature by virtue of their literary quality and importance".

literary courses focused on 20th century authors and works and the introduction of a course on a contemporary literary topic, such as the literary trends in and the narrative styles of the 1980s and 1990s in German-speaking countries as depicted by Beutler's collection of literary cameos, *Flissingen fehlt auf der Karte*. This 200 level paper introduced students to Switzerland as a cultural and political entity within Europe.

The German Studies programme at Canterbury included courses that surveyed German literary history in 1986/1987. However, at the undergraduate level the dramatic reduction in the number of literature courses offered has meant a shift away from a concept dominated by a 'comprehensive' study of the genres and periods of German literature. For example, the sixteen literary courses offered in 1986/1987 focused primarily on the periods and genre of German literature with reference to major authors and texts. Ten years later in 1996/1997 this model had changed to one with an emphasis on courses that discussed literature in its social, political and historical context with particular emphasis on 20th century literature.

For instance, courses in 'Reading German Literary Texts' were offered at all three levels at Canterbury and were taught primarily in German. At the 100 level the Grimm Brothers' fairy tales, Karl May's wild west stories, texts by Frisch, Böll, Handke, Ch. Wolf, and texts from German TV commercials, comics and newspapers were analysed. At the 200 and 300 levels, the courses focused on selected texts of 18th, 19th and 20th centuries, including a selection of texts from the German Classical and Romantic periods (circa 1775 to 1826) and on German literary history from the beginning of the 20th century to 1945. The aim of these courses was to introduce students to German literary history by analysing a number of works from the three genres, lyrical poetry, the narrative and drama.⁸³⁴ Texts selected included the lyrical poetry of Goethe, Hölderlin, Eichendorff, Bretano, Heine and the romantic prose of Eichendorff with particular reference to *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts*. These courses also covered the new forms, contents, conventions, innovations and movements in writing and aesthetics in the 20th century as found in the works of Rilke, Hofmannsthal and Kafka, expressionist poems and short prose by van Hoddiss, Benn and Becher, Dada/surrealism with reference to Arp, Ball and Schwitters, new functionalism texts by Brecht and Döblin, texts from the Third Reich by Th. Mann, Jünger and Seghers and Brecht's views of literature in modern German society, especially in *Die Dreigroschenoper*. The intensive study of these texts was accompanied by an overview of literary and cultural history.

In addition, 'German Literature & Society' courses were offered at the 200 and 300 levels. No knowledge of German was required for these courses. At the 200 level the course focused on an in-depth look at culture and thought in the period of industrial modernism between 1900 and 1933 with reference to Döblin's *Berlin Alexanderplatz*, Lang's film *Metropolis* and Jünger's *Storm of Steel*. At the 300 level the course focused in the first half-year on travel as a cultural technique with reference to Goethe's *Italian Journey* and other

⁸³⁴ Herd & Obermayer (1992: 103-104) define genre as the three "principal literary species" accepted and utilised since Goethe's time: *Epik*, *Lyrik* and *Dramatik* (or the narrative, lyric poetry and drama).

texts of the Enlightenment period and on 20th century travel writers such as Hans Paasche and Egon Erwin Kisch. The second half of the course focused on the manifestation of youth rebellion as a perspective on German cultural history from the 1770s onward with particular reference to 'generations in conflict' in movements such as Storm and Stress (including texts by Hamann, Goethe and Schiller), young German socialism (with reference to texts by Büchner, Marx and Engels) and Expressionism (with reference to texts by van Hoddiss, Benn and Lasker-Schüler). This course also covered the student revolts in 1968 (using texts by Dutschke, Meinhof and Brinkmann), literary innovations in Austria (with reference to texts by Bauer and Handke) and the German versions of pop, punk, grunge and rave.

German at Otago also appears to have followed the 'traditional' canon with an emphasis on the literary periods and genre. However, the programme there has increasingly emphasised the literature of the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries (particularly the latter) and explicitly includes literature of the German-speaking countries. An indication of this emphasis is 'A Special Topic' (taught in conjunction with 'A Third Special Topic' at the 400 level) offered in 1996, which examined the topic of "Die Frau als Subjekt und Objekt in der Literatur der Jahrhundertwende". The aim of this course was to give students a picture of the life and times as well as of the literary accomplishments of the period. The turbulence of the turn of the century and the mixture of literary trends this produced, such as Naturalism, *Jugendstil*, Aesthetics and Expressionism, were discussed with reference to the following authors and texts: Andrea-Salome's *Fenitschka* and *Eine Ausschweifung. Erzählungen*, Dohm's *Werde, die du bist*, von Bülow's *Die schönsten Novellen der Frieda von Bülow*, Reuter's *Aus guter Familie*, Wedekind's *Erdegeist* and *Die Büchse der Pandora* and Reventlow's *Eltern Olestjerne*.

Another 'Special Topic in German' offered in 1996 (and taught in conjunction with the 400 level 'Special Topic') examined works by Handke in the literary-historical context of the so-called New Subjectivity that emerged in the literature of the 1970s. This course examined the links between the contemporary selection of ideas and the tradition of the German Bildungsroman as represented by Goethe's *Wilhelm Meisters Lehrjahre* and Keller's *Der grüne Heinrich*. These were compared with Handke's works, including *Der kurze Brief zum langen Abschied*, *Ich bin ein Bewohner des Elfenbeinturms. Aufsätze*, *Wunschloses Unglück* and *Falsche Bewegung*.

Throughout the past two decades the literary courses at Victoria have focused on an introduction to 20th century literature (particularly short stories, poetry and drama) and literary periods from Goethe to the present day, including Weimar Classicism, *Biedermeier*, *Vormärz* and the Weimar Republic. At Massey and Waikato universities, the dramatic reduction in the number of courses offered has resulted in no obvious canon being followed. At these two universities it would appear that the literary courses offered depended on or related directly to the staff research interests.

At the undergraduate level the literary courses offered by the six departments during the period concerned covered the periods of German literary history: from Middle High German literature, through the literature of the 18th and 19th centuries to the literature of the 20th century. During the period concerned there was a shift of focus from an almost equal emphasis on all the four periods to less 18th and 19th century literature and a more detailed study of 20th century literature. This was particularly evident at the universities of Auckland, Canterbury and Otago. The German literature of the Middle Ages, the 18th and 19th centuries were, however, still studied with reference to major or representative authors and texts. By 1996/1997 only three universities offered courses in Middle High German literature as compared with five universities in 1986/1987 and none of these courses were compulsory as some had been in 1986/1987. It must, however, be noted that as undergraduate students usually completed a maximum of five literature courses over three years, they were unlikely to have gained a comprehensive insight into German literary history.

The study of the genre was considered an integral part of the literature courses throughout the period. This was evident in the explicit study of the genre at some universities, such as Otago, and by the selection of texts at other universities, such as Canterbury and Auckland. The authors studied at New Zealand universities were primarily major or established authors, although some lesser-known authors, such as Schmidt, Keun and Brüning were studied at some universities. The texts selected also tended to be key or well-known works by these authors. Some of these were studied in translation rather than in the original German.

Throughout the period concerned the courses on Middle High German literature studied primarily the poetry and epics of this period, including von Aue's *Erec*, *Iwein* and *Der arme Heinrich*, Vogelweide's *Gedichte*, the *Nibelungenlied*, Würzburg's epics and Straßburg's *Tristan und Isolt*.

A relatively similar range of authors and works was listed as required reading at all six universities for the 18th century literature courses. These included Lessing's *Nathan der Weise* and *Emilia Galotti*, Goethe's *Faust I*, *Die Leiden des jungen Werthers*, and *Götz von Berlichingen*, Kleist's *Erzählungen*, poetry by Hölderlin, Büchner's *Woyzeck*, Grillparzer's *König des Holzes* and *Glück und Ende* and Nestroy's *Der Zerrissene*.

The authors and works listed for the 19th century literature courses between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997 often included Schiller's *Der Verbrecher aus verlorener Ehre* and *Maria Stuart*, Kleist's *Das Erdbeben in Chili*, *Der zerbrochene Krug* and *Prinz Friedrich von Homburg*, Büchner's *Lenz* and *Dantes Tod*, Dröste-Hülshoff's *Die Judenbuche*, Hoffmann's *Das Fräulein von Scuderi*, Keller's *Romeo und Julia auf dem Dorfe*, Hauptmann's *Bahnwärter Thiel*, *Der Sonnenaufgang* and *Die Weber*, Tieck's *Der Run*, *Runenberg* and *Die Elfen*, Eichendorff's *Aus dem Leben eines Taugenchts*, Fontane's *Frau Jenny Treibel* and *Effi*

Briest, Wedekind's *Erdgeist* and *Die Büchse der Pandora* and Heine's *Atta Troll, Deutschland. Ein Wintermärchen* and *Ein Sommernachtstraum*.

A more diverse range of authors, however, was listed for the courses in 20th century literature at the different universities, particularly in 1996/1997, although again most courses focused primarily on major authors. In 1986/1987 these included Brecht's *Der gute Mensch von Szezuan*, *Die Dreigroschenoper* and *Leben des Galilei*, Th. Mann's *Der Tod in Venedig*, *Tristan*, *Tonio Kröger* and *Buddenbrooks*, Kaiser's *Die Bürger von Calais* and *Von Morgen bis Mitternacht*, Rilke's *Dunio Elegies*, Frisch's *Homo Faber* and *Andorra*, Grass' *Die Blechtrommel*, Kafka's *Der Prozeß*, Böll's *Ansichten eines Clowns* and *Die Verlorene Ehre der Katherina Blum*, Ch. Wolf's *Nachdenken über Christa T.* and *Geteilte Himmel*, Braun's *Unvollendete Geschichte*, Hesse's *Der Steppenwolf* and *Siddartha*, Hoffmannsthal's *Der Schwierige*, *Der Unbestechliche* and works by Borchert, Bachmann, Eich, Huchel, Meckel, Handke, Walser and Plenzdorf.

The courses on 20th century German literature offered in 1996/1997 listed many of the same authors and works as for the courses offered in 1986/87, but also included authors and works such as Andersch's *Sansibar oder der letzte Grund*, Döblin's *Berlin Alexanderplatz*, Schnitzler's *Casanovas Heimfahrt*, Haushofer's *Himmel der nirgendwo endet*, and various works by Biermann, Van Hoddiss, Benn, Lasker-Schüler, Seghers, von Horvath, Fleiß, Musil, Becher, Arp, Ball, Schwitters, Jünger, Dohm, Andreas-Salome and von Bülow.

From this analysis it would appear that the departments considered the study of the major literary periods, literary genre and the representative authors and works to be an essential part of a programme in German Studies. Students would have gained a more comprehensive insight into German literary history in the 1980s or at least had the opportunity to do so. It is important to note, however, that students would not have undertaken all the literary courses offered by any one department as part of their degree due to the limited number of papers required for a major in German. Therefore, students of German would not have gained a comprehensive knowledge of German literature by simply completing the required number of papers. During the 1990s, unless the literary course were compulsory, the introduction of other courses (such as contemporary issues) would have impacted further in that students may have been tempted to undertake these courses rather than the literary ones. The disparity between the literature (and other) courses offered could be regarded as disadvantageous to the discipline overall, as some graduates (depending on which university they studied at) may not have studied the literary periods, genre, or major authors and texts of German literary (social and cultural) history.

At the graduate level there was a great variety of courses offered and no apparent canon or syllabus was followed by the six universities during the period concerned. The number of graduate level literary courses offered at Auckland increased, at Canterbury, Massey,

Victoria and Waikato the number of courses offered remained relatively stable and at Otago the number decreased. Despite this, all departments offered courses which covered *aspects* of the major literary periods: for example from the Middle Ages through the 18th and 19th centuries to the 20th century. These courses appear to have covered the main literary genre: lyric poetry, drama and the narrative. One or two courses focusing on particular literary topics were also offered. For instance, Canterbury University offered a course in the comparative literary study of “the emergence of the ‘New Woman’” in 1986/1987, and in 1996/1997 Canterbury offered a course focusing on the study of a German writer. This examined Arno Schmidt’s *Scenes from the Life of a Faun* (1953). All courses offered focused on a particular period, genre, author or topic. It is perhaps interesting to note that the actual content of a graduate level course was quite often decided in consultation with the graduate students as the numbers continuing onto graduate level study in German were relatively small.

Where the major authors and works of the Middle Ages were studied, they included von Aue, von Eschenbach’s *Parzival*, the *Nibelungenlied* and *Tristan und Isolde*. The courses on 18th and 19th century literature focused in particular on the Enlightenment, Classicism and Romanticism periods and referred to works by Goethe (including *Faust I*), Winckelmann and Schiller.

The main emphasis of the graduate level literary courses offered throughout the period concerned again tended to be on 20th century German literature, particularly on post-war prose, short stories and poetry. Authors and works studied included Rilke’s *Dunio Elegies*, Th. Mann’s *Die Erzählungen*, *Buddenbrooks*, *Der Zauberberg* and *Volks- und Kunstmärchen*, Grass’ *Die Blechtrommel*, Plenzdorf’s *Die neuen Leiden des jungen W.*, Andersch’s *Winterspelt* and works by Brecht, Meckel, Kafka, Celan, Bachmann, Arendt, Muller, Meister, Enzenberger, Brinkmann, Haufs, and Pastor.

Several universities had introduced courses about 20th century works by women writers by 1996/1997, including Bachmann’s *Malina* and *Simultan*, and Ch. Wolf’s *Kindheitsmuster*, *Kein Ort Nirgends* and *Kassandra*. Some universities had introduced courses on East German literature and these included the study of works by Ch. Wolf (including *Nachdenken über Christa T.*), Plenzdorf, Biermann and Braun. Most universities also offered graduate level courses in film and literature by 1996/1997.

It is clear that literature formed an integral part of graduate level programmes in German throughout the period concerned despite the apparent lack of interest in literary papers as reported by the departments/sections. The increased focus on 20th century literature of many of the courses offered parallels a similar shift at the undergraduate level. It is, however, unlikely that graduate level students would have gained a comprehensive insight

into German literary history or German literature as again a limited number of papers were required.

Literature quite clearly remained an integral part of German programmes at all universities in New Zealand during the past two decades. However, a number of factors and changes have reduced its significance at most universities. These include a change in the emphasis of the courses offered from a comprehensive study of the literary periods and genre to a greater emphasis on 20th century literature while still including a limited insight into other periods. There has also been an increase in the incidence of 'Special Topics' in literature, often coinciding with staff research interests or those of visiting academics. For example, the 'Special Topic: Antikenrezeption in der deutschen Klassik' offered at Canterbury in 1997 discussed idealism and Utopia as represented by the Greek antique traditions and its reception in German literature from the Classical period with reference to texts by Winckelmann, Schiller and Goethe.⁸³⁵ Other contributing factors included an apparent decline in student demand, changes in staffing levels, external factors such as changes to degree structures, a rationalisation of small course enrolments, a decline in the available resources, the introduction of non-literary fields (such as contemporary issues) and the need to attract and retain students.

Literary theory and methodology courses appear not have been an integral part of the teaching programmes offered by the discipline in New Zealand at either the undergraduate or graduate levels during the period concerned. No specific courses in literary theory and methodology were offered at either the undergraduate or graduate levels by Auckland, Massey, Victoria and Waikato, while at Canterbury University, the 'Reading German Literary Texts' courses included the study of methods of literary analysis and interpretation methods. Only one university, namely Otago, offered a specific paper in literary theory and methodology: in 1986/1987 students majoring in German within the B.A. (Hons) degree at Otago could opt for a course in the principles of literary criticism at the 300 level. In 1996/1997, B.A. (Hons) students were required to take the 'Introduction to Germanistik' course at the 200 level, which introduced students to the concepts of literary criticism.

However, the literature courses offered by the different departments/sections most probably contained elements of literary theory, methodology and criticism. One difficulty with the study of German literature in New Zealand would appear to have been (and still is) the lack of prior knowledge about the interpretation and analysis of literary texts that students possess.

⁸³⁵ This course was only offered as a taught course during March and April, then as an extended essay.

A great variety of *courses in German culture/civilisation* were offered by German departments/sections at the undergraduate level during the period concerned. Some of these were core or compulsory courses (for those students majoring in the language and the economy, society and culture stream at Victoria University, for instance), but most were optional or elective courses, although strongly recommended for those majoring in German. Despite the dramatic reduction in the number of literature courses between 1986/1987 and 1996/1997, the number of culture/civilisation courses has not increased greatly. These courses have, however, increasingly been taught primarily in English in an attempt to attract students from other disciplines, thereby increasing the numbers of students enrolling in one or more courses in German.

There was no standardised pattern or type of culture/civilisation course. Many of the courses tended to focus on a particular period (such as 19th and 20th century German culture, civilisation and history or German economic and political history of the 19th century). Otago, for instance, offered a 100 level course in 1996 entitled 'People, Power, Politics', which introduced students to the social, cultural and political history of the German-speaking world from 1848 to the present. Two major cities - Vienna at the turn of the century and the Berlin of the 1920s - both important as centres of European culture, were studied using texts and films.⁸³⁶ Others contained a broad survey of German culture through the ages. For instance, the course 'Introduction to German History & Culture' provided students with a broad survey of modern German culture (literature, architecture, painting, philosophy, film and popular culture) and its historical roots from the Middle Ages through the Enlightenment period and the French Revolution to the turbulent response(s) to WWI and WWII, the 1968 student protests and the reunification of the two Germanies.

Several of the departments/sections offered combined literature, civilisation and culture courses (namely Canterbury, Massey, Otago and Waikato) throughout the period, so it is difficult to determine exactly how much of the course content focused on culture/civilisation as opposed to the study of literature. For example, the 'Survey of the Main Periods of German Literature & Art from the Middle Ages to 1918' and the 'Literary & Social Change in the 19th Century' courses offered at Massey in 1986/1987 and in 1996 discussed the political and social history of Germany and its literature.

Victoria was the only department/section at which students were given a comprehensive survey of the past two centuries of German society, culture, history and recent European developments, but only if students chose to major in that stream and completed the three courses at the 100, 200 and 300 levels. Otherwise students of German were generally offered only selected periods of German cultural history, if they included the mainly optional courses in their programme of study.

⁸³⁶ This course was renamed 'Culture & Ideas of the German-speaking World' in 1997.

The 'German Economy, Society & Culture' courses (introduced in 1983) focused on recent historical and cultural developments and contained a component of the language of business life in Germany. 'German Economy, Society & Culture 1' introduced students to the modern German culture and civilisation, the basic facts about and interrelations between economic, social and cultural institutions and procedures of the FRG (in the context of its position in an integrated Europe) and to the background to and language of business life in Germany. 'German Economy, Society & Culture 2' examined the political, cultural, economic and social developments in the German-speaking countries from 1945 onwards in three parts and included an advanced study of business life in Germany. 'German Economy, Society & Culture 3' followed the 200 level course and focused on the history and current features of German political and business life, including the German economic and political history of the 19th century and of the 1920s and 1930s as reflected in German culture and literature and the advanced study of the background to and language of German political and business life.⁸³⁷

By 1996/1997 Massey and Victoria had introduced undergraduate level courses in European civilisation or 'European Studies', which examined European issues as they related to Germany and the integration of Europe. The 'European Civilisation' course offered at the 100 level at Massey latter focused, for example, on the study of the fundamental elements and major achievements in European civilisation, both past and present. This course provided the broad European cultural context relevant to contemporary developments in the European Union. Art, architecture, literature, music and social and political changes were discussed as part of this course. Since 1993 students of German at Victoria University have been encouraged to take the 'Introduction to European Studies' paper at the 100 level. This course was taught in English and discussed European institutions, relations with other countries, European writing since 1960 and key characteristics of the European languages. Another highly recommended course was a course on German history since 1848 offered by the History Department.

The introduction of these courses, taught in English, reflected the political and social developments in Europe during the past two decades as well as the changes that have occurred in New Zealand universities. For instance, most German departments are now part of larger departments of European Languages or Studies and several now offer a major or a programme in European Studies. Such courses have also been an attempt to attract more students by providing courses that are relevant to the modern world and even applicable to later careers (such as in the diplomatic service).

⁸³⁷ Cf. Smith 1988: 65-68.

None of the Universities offered such courses at the graduate level during the period concerned, although most offered 'Special Topics', which may have covered cultural topics.⁸³⁸

During the past two decades there has been a clear shift of orientation within some German Studies programmes with ***the introduction of courses in contemporary German (and European) issues*** as an integral part of a major or the overall programme at several universities. None of the six departments/sections offered courses in contemporary German issues in 1986/1987. However, ten years later three of the six departments/sections had introduced specific courses in contemporary German and European issues. At Auckland, for instance, students of German could take an optional 'Special Topic in German Studies', which focused on different aspects of the relationship between New Zealand and Germany in the 20th century at war, including the Arts, Sciences and Education, the present-day relationship between the countries and individual profiles of well-known German-speaking immigrants.⁸³⁹ While this reflected the departmental shift towards emphasising the contemporary, non-literary aspects of German Studies, this course could not be taken to fulfil the requirements for a major in German, but rather as a supplementary course. This course was offered at both the undergraduate (300) and graduate levels.

By 1997 Massey University had added an undergraduate level course on 'Modern Germany', which discussed the changing face of contemporary Germany, its political, cultural and educational institutions and the problems and opportunities faced by a reunited Germany within the framework of the EU. No graduate level courses in contemporary issues were offered at Massey during the period concerned. The undergraduate level courses in European civilisation or 'European Studies' introduced by Massey and Victoria (as previously discussed) could also be categorised as contemporary issues courses as they both discussed aspects of contemporary Germany and Europe.

At Canterbury the 200 and 300 level 'German Literature and Society' courses discussed aspects of contemporary Germany, such as the reunification. No undergraduate or graduate level courses in contemporary issues were offered at Otago or Victoria Universities during the period concerned.

During the past two decades the German Section at Waikato has changed its offerings quite significantly in this direction.⁸⁴⁰ In 1996/1997, students of German there could select a course in contemporary German issues at the 100 level, a course in German and European issues in the third year of study, and a course covering the major German and European institutions in the educational, cultural and business sectors at the graduate level. The 100

⁸³⁸ Due to the variety of topics and types of courses defined as 'Special Topics', it has been impossible to ascertain trends in the topics offered under this designation by departments/sections.

⁸³⁹ Cf. Bade 1998.

⁸⁴⁰ Cf. Knüfermann 1998b: 275-277.

level course introduced students to the 'Social, Political & Cultural Aspects of Contemporary Germany' and was taught in German. The 300 level 'Contemporary German & European Issues' course (introduced in 1996) encompassed economic, cultural and social aspects of modern Germany and European Integration. This course was also taught in German.

These courses could be taken as part of the requirements of a major or graduate level study in German at Waikato and the 100 level course was compulsory for students majoring in German. Furthermore, students at the graduate level were encouraged to research the interrelationships between Germany, the EU and New Zealand. The introduction of these applied research projects allowed graduate students much greater scope for research in several subdisciplines of Germanistik, including language, literature, linguistics, film and media, contemporary German and European issues and *DaF*.

The recent introduction of such courses by several of the German departments/sections reflects the need for the discipline to diversify, to offer more attractive, relevant and vocationally oriented courses and the general shift in the discipline world-wide towards emphasising (or including) the contemporary, non-literary aspects of German. These developments have increased the variety of courses available to students, but remain mainly optional for students, except at Waikato where a major in German must include language, literature and contemporary issues courses. The introduction of such courses (and the new major(s)) in response to the social, cultural and educational developments in New Zealand is central to the debate about the characteristics of *Auslandsgermanistik* as compared to *Binnengermanistik*. That is, adaptation to the changing context in which it operates in other countries has been vital for the discipline's survival to date.

A number of **'other' courses and research options** were offered during the period concerned.⁸⁴¹ However, the number of 'other' courses offered was few, no doubt due to the relatively small size of departments/sections and the declining resources and student numbers. Such courses included courses in film (or film and literature). During the 1990s several universities, namely Auckland, Canterbury, Massey and Waikato, offered courses in German Film. At Auckland a study of selected novels and their film adaptations was offered in 1996. In 1997 an investigation into the interrelationship between literature and film, with special reference to the works of Handke and Wenders, was offered. The department at Canterbury offered a 'German Film' course in 1996/1997, which involved 100 hours of laboratory work and included an introduction to the theory and history of film. The 200 level course in 'German Film' offered at Massey in 1996/1997 examined the history of German film with particular reference to the works of Fassbinder, Schlöndorff, von Trotta, Herzog and Wenders. In 1996/1997 a course in German Cinema at the 200 level was offered at the University of Waikato. This was taught in English and the films shown were in German with

⁸⁴¹ Under 'other' the author refers to any courses offered by the departments/sections that do not strictly fit into any of the other categories of analysis.

English subtitles. This course surveyed the history of German cinema from its beginnings to the New German Cinema of 1970s and 1980s.

At Otago, the structure of the major in German within the B.A. meant that students had no option as to the courses they undertook. However, those students majoring in German within the B.A. (Hons) degree during the period concerned could elect to include a number of 'other' courses in their programme of study, such as the writing of essays in German.

The most significant addition of 'other' courses has been the introduction of *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (DaF) courses at the University of Waikato for their graduate students and for German students of DaF who come to New Zealand for a semester or a year abroad and or to complete the *Praktikum* component of their degree programme.⁸⁴² In 1996/1997 these courses included: '*Rahmenbedingungen des Fachs Deutsch in Neuseeland. Zur Situation des Deutschlehrers im Ausland*', '*Praktikum DaF*', '*Spracherwerb und Literatur an neuseeländischen Schulen und Hochschulen*' and '*Deutschsprachige Einwanderer in Neuseeland*'. These courses diversified the section's graduate course offerings considerably and allow for interaction in the academic context between the German and the New Zealand graduate students. The introduction of these courses was part of the overall re-orientation in Waikato's German Studies programme and primarily due to the research and teaching interests of the then Chairperson of Department/Head of the German Section.

As in the other countries included in this study, all six New Zealand universities required students of German at the graduate level to undertake some form of research as part of their programme of study. This was and is regarded as being an integral component of graduate level study in German Studies. At Otago University, for instance, B.A. (Hons) students were required to complete a dissertation (worth two papers) at the 400 level. At some universities (such as Massey) students could opt to undertake a 'Special Topic' at the 300 level. Individual or directed research could be done in many different forms, including as a 'Special Topic', a dissertation (usually the equivalent of one or two papers), a thesis (usually the equivalent of one to four papers), a directed research project, a report of an investigation and a research or extended essay.

While it appears the opportunities for and the forms in which students could undertake research have increased and diversified during the period concerned, most graduate level research has focused on literary topics.⁸⁴³ All research undertaken at Canterbury, for instance, during the period concerned was in the field of literature, although it may have been possible to accommodate a topic in linguistics or in contemporary issues in 1996/1997 had there been any Master's candidates during those years.⁸⁴⁴ At Massey all Master's

⁸⁴² Cf. Knüfermann 2000: 513-514.

⁸⁴³ Cf. Obermayer 1992.

⁸⁴⁴ Cf. R. Fisher (University of Canterbury), *Personal correspondence*, 13 February 1998.

research during the period concerned was in the field of literature. 'Wandel der gesellschaftlichen Struktur in Gottfried Kellers *Die Leute von Seldwyla*', 'Sarah Kirsch und das versteckte Zitat in Christa Wolfs *Sommerstück*', 'Die Emanzipation des Frauenbildes: eine Untersuchung der Rolle des Goetheschen Romans *Die Wahlverwandtschaften* in Aja Beutlers *Konzept der Wortfalle*', 'The *Miethaus* in Brigitte Brumeister's *Unter dem Namen Norma*' were some of the topics researched.⁸⁴⁵

The exceptions to this emphasis on literary research were Auckland and Waikato Universities. At the former graduate research included language, literature, linguistics and the connections between Germany and New Zealand in 1996/1997. At the latter, research encompassed language, literature, contemporary German and European issues, the interrelationships between Germany and New Zealand, *DaF* and *Interkulturelle Germanistik*. However, the actual number of students undertaking graduate level study and research at all universities has apparently declined.

III.4.3.3 The development of interdisciplinary and intercultural courses and programmes.

During the past two decades it has become increasingly obvious in New Zealand that student interest in purely literary courses has waned as compared with the demand for vocationally oriented degrees or courses, such as Law or Management Studies. One result of the changes in student demand and the context in which the discipline operates is that most departments have introduced or are planning to introduce interdisciplinary elements (quite apart from any changes in the actual German courses offered) to the programmes they offer, sometimes in cooperation with other departments, particularly the Management Studies, Commerce, Linguistics and History departments. The introduction of innovative interdisciplinary programmes is a direct reflection of the need for the languages departments/sections to adapt their course offerings to contain a more vocationally-oriented dimension, to attract new students or students from other disciplines and to counter the perception of many students (and others) that a degree in languages is not useful for later employment.⁸⁴⁶

One example of this initiative, which also reflects the focus of the recently merged Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and of the University of Waikato as a whole, is that of clearly defined area studies: for instance, East Asian Studies, Maori & Pacific Development Studies and European & Hispanic Studies. During the 1990s students at Waikato could (and can still) essentially undertake a programme in European Studies within the regulatory framework of the B.A. degree. This interdisciplinary programme within the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences comprised courses in four different areas: European languages,

⁸⁴⁵ Cf. A. Vieregg (Massey University), *Personal correspondence*, 11 March 1998.

⁸⁴⁶ Cf. Smith 1997: 2-3.

History or Politics, Management Studies and 'Culture'.⁸⁴⁷ The programme was concerned with the languages, cultures, history, politics and business environment of Europe and designed to familiarise New Zealand students with the complex cultural, historical, political and social facets of one of the world's major regions. This was an integrated programme of study, not simply a major in European Studies as is the case at the other New Zealand universities offering programmes in European Studies. A student might, for instance, major in History with Spanish as their first support, Management Studies as the second support and Linguistics as their third, a combination which could be useful when seeking employment in the diplomatic or foreign affairs and trade sectors.

Under the programme, students met the requirements for a major (8 courses), first support (6 courses), second support (3 courses) and third supporting subject (2 courses). The courses chosen covered all four components of the programme: (i) Languages, (ii) History or Politics, (iii) Management and (iv) Culture, and included the core courses from all four areas. The number of core courses required under the latter three components was two per category. The minimum number of courses for the language component was four. Courses that may be included in the programme included 'The European World' (from the History offerings), 'European Integration' (from the Politics offerings), 'International Business Environment' (from the Management offerings), 'The History of European Languages' (from the Linguistics offerings), 'Modern European Theatre' (from the Drama offerings) and 'History of European Art' (from the Art History offerings).⁸⁴⁸

In addition, students of management at Waikato can undertake the International Management Programme (IMP), whereby they major in Management Studies, but are required to take at least eight courses from those offered by the (European or Asian) language departments/sections (usually those papers required for the major in that particular discipline).

Another aspect of the shift towards German Studies in the European context by the German Section at Waikato has been the development during recent years of applied research projects at the graduate level. The emphasis of these is to research issues where New Zealand and Germany are interconnected in the business, tourism, education and cultural sectors, and to make use of the language, area and cultural knowledge acquired by language students. Through these projects students gain an insight into the organisations, thereby enhancing employment opportunities, while at the same time furthering their academic studies. One reason behind the introduction of such graduate research projects was the realisation that language skills are a valuable asset in a broad range of social and commercial activities (Department of European & Hispanic Studies 1997: 8).

⁸⁴⁷ 'Culture' includes areas such as Screen and Media Studies, Linguistics, Philosophy, English, Drama, Art History, Music, Religious Studies.

⁸⁴⁸ These courses change annually depending on the offerings of the departments in question.

These applied projects have developed partially due to the demands placed on language departments internationally to realise the “relevance of their discipline[s] to the ‘real world’.” (Victoria 1996: 9) Due in part to the increasing costs of tertiary education and subsequent declining enrolments in the Arts and other “traditional university language courses [...] Language Departments [are being] forced to rethink their programmes.” (Victoria 1996: 9) “Many students, especially those in business [want] practical language skills and [are] frustrated that courses [do] not meet their needs.” (Laxon 1995: 4) The somewhat controversial view that language departments need to face (or accept) the realities of the commercial world, in which students need and, as the ‘clients’ of these departments, have the right to a tertiary education “giving them the maximum competitive advantage in an ever-tightening job market” (Victoria 1996: 9) is one aspect of the introduction of graduate research projects similar to those Management Studies students are required to complete as part of their degrees. (Projects which research typically ‘non-traditional’ and perhaps controversial subject areas for Humanities students.)⁸⁴⁹

Another aspect behind the introduction of such graduate research projects has been the intrinsic realisation that language students tend to be more culturally aware and, therefore, have greater ‘access’ to and interaction with other people and cultures. Foreign languages are communication tools that facilitate and complement all other areas of study.⁸⁵⁰ It has been shown that language students can more easily make and foster international contacts when they have a command of the economic, political and cultural importance of the language.⁸⁵¹ Research projects, which extend the students’ knowledge of (a particular aspect of) a culture and language, while utilising the students’ abilities, are a positive addition to integrated language studies and must give students the competitive advantage as individuals (and as citizens of their home country), in the employment market and in further research or study.

Examples of such projects undertaken in recent years include: a study of the marketing of New Zealand language schools in Germany, an investigation into the language support and education given to new migrants in New Zealand and Germany, research into the work of New Zealand and German trade and affiliated organisations and an evaluation of the New Zealand/German Secondary Schools Exchange Programme.

At Auckland University, a programme in European Studies and another in International Management Studies are planned. As part of this development the Germanic Languages & Literature Department has introduced a ‘German in Business’ course. Students of German at all universities were also encouraged to include papers from other departments, such as

⁸⁴⁹ Cf. Knüfermann 1998c.

⁸⁵⁰ Cf. Victoria 1996: 9.

⁸⁵¹ Cf. Ammon 1991a: 47.

Linguistics, History, Film and Media Studies, in their overall programme of study. This was regarded as one method of ensuring a balanced programme of study as well of increasing the applicability of a languages or Humanities degree to a later career.

III.4.3.4 Into the 21st century: the most recent developments and innovations.

The trends, which have become evident during the past two decades, have continued to develop and intensify during the latter part of the 1990s and 2000/2001.⁸⁵² Most universities have experienced further staff reductions (with retiring staff not being replaced) and a further decline in resources.⁸⁵³ In addition, more restructuring within the universities themselves has been suggested. At the University of Waikato, for instance, it is planned to restructure the eight schools of study into four faculties, although this plan has now been halted by a court order. Further amalgamation between the Departments of European & Hispanic Studies, Linguistics and East Asian Studies has also been suggested, but rejected by staff members at least for the present. The number of courses offered by several departments, in particular at Auckland and Massey Universities, has decreased during 1998 and 1999, and some department/sections are struggling to continue to offer a graduate level programme in German.⁸⁵⁴

On the positive side, however, there has been a continued increase in the number and diversity of opportunities for students at all levels to study, travel, and work overseas in conjunction with their foreign language studies. In addition, the former Auckland Institute of Technology was granted the status of a university in early 2000 and now offers courses in German language for certificate and diploma qualifications (Johnson 2000: 150,153).⁸⁵⁵

German courses at Auckland University are now fully semesterised and a reduced number of courses are now offered. Because the language courses at each level are semesterised and the time-tabling of these is not under the control of the department, a question as to the quality and continuity of students' learning of the language has arisen. For instance, if a student enrolls in the 100 level language course in A semester and the 200 level language course is not offered until the B semester of the following year, then the student will have no language classes for approximately one year.

Students at Auckland are still required to complete eight courses for a major in German and the focus of the major remains on language, literature and linguistics. Courses in European Languages and Literatures have been added to the course offerings for the B.A.: 'The languages of Europe', 'Images of the European City', 'Thinking Europe' and 'Collective Memory of Europe'. Students are increasingly encouraged to include papers in Film, Television and Media Studies and Linguistics in their programme of study.

⁸⁵² Cf. Cassie January 2000: 5.

⁸⁵³ Cf. MacLennan 2000: 10; Cassie March 2000: 3; Johnson 2000: 96-97.

⁸⁵⁴ Cf. Johnson 2000: 535.

⁸⁵⁵ Cf. <http://www.aut.ac.nz/depts/languages/> (6 March 2001).

In addition, an interdisciplinary programme in Comparative Literature at the undergraduate and graduate levels is open to students taking papers in various language and literature departments.⁸⁵⁶ This programme aims to give students different perspectives of literary and cultural history than those available within a single language. Courses offered include 'Reading Comparatively: an Introduction' and 'Literature of Cross-Cultural Encounters'. At the graduate level students can now include a paper on 'Research Methods in European Languages, Literatures and Cultural Studies' and papers in Film, Television and Media Studies, Language Teaching and Learning, Linguistics and Translation Studies.⁸⁵⁷

The Research Centre for Germanic Connections with New Zealand and the Pacific was established at Auckland University in September 1999 to encourage "research into the links, both contemporary and historical, between Northern and Central Europe on the one hand and New Zealand and the Pacific on the other." (<http://www.arts.auckland.ac.nz/eur/ger/rescen.html> (6 March 2001)) This is an interdisciplinary body closely associated with the Department of Germanic Languages & Literatures and the School of European Languages and Literatures. The Research Centre hopes its academic monograph series, *Germanica Pacifica*, (published by *Peter Lang Verlag* in Frankfurt am Main) will become the focus of published postgraduate research in this field.

The German department at Auckland has also recently been granted the inaugural (in New Zealand) German Academic Exchange Service (*DAAD*) lectureship and a German Information Centre on Research and Studies in Germany (the first in Australasia) was opened there.⁸⁵⁸

German courses at Canterbury remain a mixture of semester and full-year courses. A major in German continues to focus on language and literature or language, literature and contemporary issues/culture. In addition to the courses offered by the German department, many other courses in European Society and Culture are offered by the languages, History, Art History, Political Science, Philosophy and Music departments at the undergraduate level at Canterbury. Such courses include 'Medieval to early Modern Europe', 'Authority and Conflict in Europe, 1450-1700', 'Comparative Politics: Contemporary Europe' and 'Comparative Politics: European Union'.⁸⁵⁹ Some new courses are now offered at the graduate level: 'Aspects of Germany since 1945 – the Sixties', 'Berlin in der Literatur – Literatur in Berlin' and a 'Special Topic in German Cultural Studies: Visions of Green. Cultural environmentalism in German and European History'. A tandem project based on internet based collaboration with learners of English at the *Fachhochschule* in Bonn was also

⁸⁵⁶ Cf. Smith 1997: 63-64; <http://www.arts.auckland.ac.nz/eur/clit.html> (6 March 2001); <http://www.arts.auckland.ac.nz/eur/ger/discip.html> (6 March 2001).

⁸⁵⁷ Cf. <http://www.arts.auckland.ac.nz/eur/translation/> (6 March 2001).

⁸⁵⁸ Cf. <http://www.daad.de/magazin/content.html> (23 May 2001);

<http://www.executive.govt.nz/speech.cfm?speechralph=34554&SR=0> (15 May 2001).

⁸⁵⁹ Cf. Smith 1997: 65-66.

started in 1998. Students are also able to participate in the recently introduced exchange programme with the University of Konstanz.⁸⁶⁰

After further restructuring in late 1998 **German at Otago University** is now part of the School of Languages, Literature and Performing Arts. German language courses at Otago remain full-year courses, while other courses are either full-year or one semester in length. Students majoring in German are still required to complete eight courses and a major in German continues to comprise language and literature courses. The emphasis of the literature courses offered remains on the literature of the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries with particular emphasis on 20th century literature of the German-speaking countries. Otago is, however, increasingly emphasising the use of modern technologies in its language teaching and other courses, including a 100 level German culture paper, 'Gateway to Germany', which is taught online.⁸⁶¹ In 2000 Otago University also introduced a major in International Business Studies (within the Management offerings), within which foreign language and culture courses form an integral part (<http://www.otago.ac.nz/german/German/GermanDept/skills.html> (6 March 2001)).

In 2001 students of **German at Victoria University** are still required to complete six papers for a major, and the major continues to comprise language and literature or language and culture/contemporary issues courses. Students can major in German, Modern Languages or European Studies.⁸⁶²

The German Section at Massey University is now part of the School of Languages, which offers programmes in East Asian Studies, European Languages and European Studies and Linguistics and Second Language Teaching.⁸⁶³ German courses at Massey University are now fully semesterised. Language courses at each level are only one semester long as at Auckland and Waikato. This again raises the question as to the depth and continuity of language skills these students will possess on completion of their degree. A major in German comprises language and literature courses. 125 points are now required for a major in German and this is equal to ten courses, an increase from the equivalent of eight courses required in 1996/1997 (and as continues to be required at most other universities).

While the German courses offered continue to focus on language and literature, Massey also introduced a major in European Studies in 1998. This includes the study of two European languages and related European Studies such as literature, linguistics, history and philosophy. (Department of European Languages 1997: 36) From 2000 new students of German (and the other European languages) as a major are required to enrol in the major in

⁸⁶⁰ Cf. <http://www.grmn.canterbury.ac.nz/overseas.html> (6 March 2001).

⁸⁶¹ Cf. Smith 1997: 68; Alm-Lequeux 1998; <http://www.otago.ac.nz/German/HeimatFrame.html> (18 September 1997).

⁸⁶² Cf. <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/sel> (6 March 2001).

⁸⁶³ Cf. <http://www.massey.ac.nz/~wwlang/> (6 March 2001).

European Studies (<http://www.massey.ac.nz/~wwhusoc/prog/german.html> (6 March 2001)). This programme “combines enhanced language and culture studies in addition to offering access to a wide field of European Studies, drawing on expertise within the College of Humanities and Social Sciences” (<http://www.study.massey.ac.nz/major.asp?MajorCode=BAEuroStud> (6 March 2001)).

The European Studies major, which requires a total of 125 points or the equivalent of ten papers, comprises three key components:

- Language courses, including at least one course at the 300 level in the primary language and one 100 level course in a second European language;
- A selection of core papers, including ‘European Civilisation’ (which aims to increase the awareness of the significance of Europe, fundamental elements and major achievements in European civilisation and its continuing links with New Zealand) and ‘Contemporary European Literature’ (which focuses on current issues in contemporary European writing); and
- At least two courses (25 points) at the 300 level in Europe related papers from the offerings of Classical Studies, English, French, German, History, Music, Philosophy and Politics.

At **the University of Waikato** there has been little change in the emphasis of the German Studies programme since 1996/1997. Eight courses are still required for a major and the emphasis of a major remains on language, literature and contemporary German and European issues. There are still a mixture of full-year and semester courses, although as from 2001 all courses are expected to be semesterised. There has been a reduction in the number of optional courses offered, mainly due to further reductions in student and staff numbers. However, a 100 level course ‘Introduction to Contemporary Europe’ was offered in 2000. This was taught in English by all three sections in the department (French, German and Spanish) and was compulsory for students majoring in German (or French or Spanish). This course is not being offered in 2001. A 200 level literature course tracing the key periods, authors and texts of German literary history was introduced in 1999 (at the suggestion of the student representatives in the section) to replace the core course on the ‘Middle Ages and their discovery in modern times’. This course is taught in German and is compulsory for those students majoring in German. At the graduate level, the programme in *DaF* for international students continues to operate, but with a reduced number of courses offered.⁸⁶⁴

The need for public relations and marketing of the discipline, the German departments/sections and the available programmes and other activities has become increasingly evident in recent years. Within the tertiary sector overall there has been an

⁸⁶⁴ Cf. <http://www.waikato.ac.nz/wfass/subjects/germ/daf.shtml> (6 March 2001).

increased tendency in the late 1990s to focus on the marketability and applicability of degree programmes offered. The Humanities disciplines have continued to feel the impact of this trend, particularly given the perceived lack of professional orientation of the language (and most Humanities) degree offerings and students' reluctance to accumulate high debt if they cannot identify the professional value of the qualification. However, it appears that little advice regarding the centrality of international languages in the increasingly globalised educational and professional environment is given to students. School-leavers coming to university often believe that they must choose one subject to study and logically (given the current climate of high fees and student loans) elect to study a vocationally-oriented degree (such as Law or Management).

As a result there has been an increasing trend towards explicit Public Relations and promotion of the value of languages overall and, in particular, the European languages.⁸⁶⁵

This has included measures such as:

- Promoting the available overseas travel, study and work opportunities;
- Promoting the unique characteristics of each university's programme;
- Countering the perception that languages or Humanities degrees are non-vocational by recommending that students enrol in language courses in addition to their Law or Management studies; and
- Branding the department/section(s) as being different from the other providers of language studies.

In light of this need for publicity, the Department of European & Hispanic Studies at the University of Waikato decided a proactive public relations campaign for the Department as a whole should be designed and a Public Relations Co-ordinator appointed to implement it in 1999. The promotional activities undertaken included a departmental social evening to which the national language advisors and teachers of European languages in the greater Waikato area were invited, a series of academic lectures at the University designed to heighten the Department's profile within the academic community, an Information Day where secondary school students visited the Department to obtain information on their chosen subjects, a series of school visits, and a number of magazine articles (both in English and German language papers, including the EU Newsletter published in Canberra).

Further activities included an Information Evening for (potential) students of European languages, their parents, teachers and career advisors. Topics covered at this included: (i) the European Union and its importance to New Zealand, (ii) planning study programmes and careers, (iii) bridging University study and professional development and (iv) scholarships, teaching assistantships and work placements overseas. In November 1999 the Department hosted a day-long seminar entitled "New Zealand and its relations with Europe" to which

⁸⁶⁵ Cf. Smith 1988: 69; Bartholomae 1990: 409-410; Knüfermann 2000: 508.

speakers on the international relations between New Zealand and Europe, business, tourism and European languages and European languages in the educational context in New Zealand were invited. The response to these activities was extremely positive and the campaign was continued in 2000.

Many within the discipline believe that if a professional dimension or focus were to be established as part of the languages or Humanities degrees and then well publicised, students would come to recognise the potential benefits of integrated programmes, such as European Studies. Perhaps this could eventually provide the necessary breathing space for more traditional cultural or literary research and teaching versus the applied facets of the discipline. However, the cold hard fact of the matter is that German Studies programmes in New Zealand must, in the meantime, continue to attract a greater number of students.

Several encouraging trends in the teaching of foreign languages in New Zealand have occurred during recent years.

While university enrolments in German (and other European languages) have declined in recent years, this trend has to be seen in the context of declining enrolments in European languages at secondary schools and the disestablishment of German at some schools (where it had previously had a reasonable level of support) in order to accommodate additional Asian languages in response to Government strategy. Latest developments, however, point to a reversal of this trend with new schools offering German and some re-introducing the subject. In addition, some schools are making the study of a language other than English and Maori compulsory.

There has also been a move towards introducing the learning and teaching of key international languages to students of a younger age than has been customary in New Zealand (*NZ Education Review* 1999: 8). Latest figures have shown that approximately 3800 primary and intermediate students are learning a foreign language. The question of ongoing funding and the lack of language planning on a national scale remains. The transition to language learning at secondary schools also remains problematic. However, it is an encouraging trend and has been given some initial government support in terms of funding.

In recent years the New Zealand government has introduced a number of initiatives to provide support for second languages in schools, including a funding pool for second language learning that secondary schools have access to, the production of the International Language Series programmes (for German, French, Japanese and Spanish) and curriculum statements for some foreign languages (Ministry of Education 1999).⁸⁶⁶ Advisory support for teachers of foreign languages is financed by the government in the form of national advisors for Chinese, French, German, Japanese and Spanish. These advisors are based at the

⁸⁶⁶ Cf. Ministry of Education 1997, 2000; Johnson 2000: 25-26, 83-84, 98-102, 113-120, 141-150, 197-235, 525, 534, 536.

Association of Colleges of Education in New Zealand (ACENZ) in Wellington and “offer leadership in teaching skills, language and cultural information through courses and school-based support.” (Ministry of Education 2000) Regional language advisers were also introduced in 1998 to assist all schools that offer languages and to provide leadership in the management of foreign languages (Ministry of Education 1999).⁸⁶⁷

Finally, another encouraging trend is the gradual recognition of the need for public relations by organisations other than the university departments/sections of German. A recent example of this was the publication by the then National Languages Advisor for German of a book profiling well-known (and not so well-known) New Zealanders who have learnt German and how it has impacted on their subsequent careers and lives. It was appropriately titled: *Advantage: German The benefits for New Zealanders of learning German*.

⁸⁶⁷ Cf. Ministry of Education 1997, 2000.

**Part IV: Recommendations for the Future
Development of German Studies
in New Zealand.**

PART IV: Recommendations for the Future Development of German Studies in New Zealand.

IV.1 Factors and Trends Impacting on German Studies in the Asian-Pacific Region.

IV.1.1 Historical and political parameters of the discipline.

The discipline of German Studies has many faces: it is clearly dependent on complex, diverse and interrelated factors, including historical, political, economic, social and educational developments. Prime examples of these in the Asian-Pacific region are developments in Japan, China and Korea.

Prior to 1945, for example, and particularly during the Meiji dynasty and modernisation process, Germany and the German culture were regarded in Japan as *the* cultural, political and economic '*Vorbild*' in academia, the military and public administration sectors as well as the Law and Medical professions.⁸⁶⁸ German was *the* language of academia. However since 1945 there has been a dramatic change in the status of the discipline in Japan. The new school system introduced after WWII was based on the US model. Today the US is Japan's most important trading partner and English has become the dominant first foreign language, *the lingua franca* of foreign relations and trade. As a consequence the status awarded to the teaching and learning of German has declined dramatically.

The impact of political parameters on the discipline is equally glaring in the case of China. China's long historical isolation from foreign influence, the Japanese occupation in the 1930s and 1940s, the introduction of communism and the founding of the People's Republic of China, Soviet and East German influence during the 1950s, the Cultural Revolution and the more recent waves of modernisation and liberalisation are clear evidence of this.⁸⁶⁹

Korea provides a further example. In this case the Japanese occupation from 1910 to 1945 impacted in a major way on the discipline of German Studies. Many Germanisten were essentially forced to study in Japan and subsequently used textbooks and German literature in Japanese translation. During the Japanese occupation German (after Japanese) became an important second foreign language and was compulsory for students in Law, Medicine and the Sciences.⁸⁷⁰

It is evident from the detail contained in this study that there are regional differences and variances in the historical and current development of the discipline in the Asian-Pacific region. However specific and divergent the face of German Studies may have been at different points in time in these countries, all of the Asian-Pacific countries included in this study (and these developments are not restricted to the Asian-Pacific region) have in recent

⁸⁶⁸ Refer to sections II.2.2.1, II.2.2.2 and II.2.4.1 for details.

⁸⁶⁹ Refer to sections II.1.2.1, II.1.2.2, II.1.3.1 and II.1.4.1 for further details.

⁸⁷⁰ Refer to section II.3.4.1 for further details.

years shared significant new developments, which have impacted and continue to impact in a major way on the discipline of German Studies: those of globalisation and internationalisation.

IV.1.2 Globalisation and the dominance of English.

The overriding trend of globalisation and internationalisation have resulted in the diversification and integration of foreign and trading relations. Today the Asian-Pacific countries included in this study are part of an international network of trade and communications. Several countries in this region, such as Japan and Korea, have become world leaders in trade and research. Others, such as China, are emerging as global powers.

The processes of globalisation and internationalisation have led to the dominance of the English language internationally. Because of its significance as the language of international trade, political and cultural communication, English has become the compulsory first foreign language in Japan and Korea and de facto in China. It is also one of the two official languages in New Zealand and de facto the official language in Australia. All other languages have been forced to compete with the status of English as *the lingua franca* internationally.

Despite the dominance of the English language in this context, 'niche' markets for other languages do exist given the increasing diversification of world trade, increasing world travel and the worldwide networking of information. Often these have developed due to purely pragmatic reasons, that is, a perceived market for these languages, be it Spanish, Russian or Japanese. What in effect could be regarded as a positive development for languages other than English actually exposes each language to ever increasing competition and the need to justify their existence.

Part of the process of globalisation has been the increasing networking and integration of communications technology and the sharing of information via these technology networks worldwide. As a great percentage of the correspondence using this technology is conducted in English, other languages have been marginalised in this context too.

IV.1.3 The vocational focus.

During the past two decades there have been pronounced moves in Australia, Korea and New Zealand towards the marketisation of the education system. Key characteristics of these developments have been: a move towards the principle of 'user-pays' and the determination of academic programmes according to the principle of consumer demand. Academics are now increasingly concerned with recruitment, budgetary and administrative issues. Once students have to pay for a significant proportion of their education, it is understandable that their choice of subject(s) cannot be dependent solely on personal interest, but rather must be strongly influenced by the marketability of their qualifications. In

other words, by the perceived 'usefulness' of their discipline(s). The reforms associated with the marketisation of the education system (which have been closely related to the economic and political reforms and changes internationally⁸⁷¹) have led to a situation of competition between educational institutions and between subjects within these institutions. This has posed major challenges for a number of disciplines, particularly the foreign languages disciplines.

The marketisation of education and the associated vocational focus have led many to question the 'usefulness' of foreign languages, particularly the European languages. Asian languages are in a relatively stronger position being regarded as applicable to later employment in these Asian-Pacific countries. Historically foreign languages disciplines have been literature-based. Germanistik in the German-speaking countries has traditionally fulfilled a cultural function, and this model (with literary studies as the dominant component) was essentially adopted by the countries in this study. During the past two decades, however, the question of 'general or cultural education' versus career-oriented education has become more pointed. Foreign language disciplines, including German Studies, have been forced to adapt the courses and programmes offered to reflect the diversification of career options and the trend towards the study of vocational or professional subjects.

As this study has shown the discipline of German Studies has responded to these challenges in a number of ways. In China, for instance, the discipline has actively sought to benefit from the increasing economic cooperation and links between China and Germany. This has given German graduates new employment opportunities in tourism, foreign affairs and as intermediaries between the two markets and cultures in joint ventures, in addition to becoming translators, interpreters and university teachers as was traditionally the case. In Australia it is argued there is considerable potential for growth and development in relations between German-speaking Europe and Australia, particularly as an intermediary and as a base for German and European companies wishing to expand into the Asian markets. (The same is true to a degree in the case of New Zealand.) Despite these opportunities, foreign language programmes (including German) are not considered by students, parents, the general public and the business sector to be highly relevant in obtaining employment. This is heightened in New Zealand and Australia by a rather indifferent attitude of most business people towards foreign languages other than the Asian languages, which are given more attention in the media and in the form of government funding.

⁸⁷¹ Cf. Straubherr 1998.

IV.1.4 Changes in the education system impacting on foreign languages.

Changes in the education system have gone hand in hand with the trend towards a vocational focus in education. The countries included in this study have undergone significant reforms in the tertiary education sector that have in turn impacted on the teaching and learning of foreign languages such as German. In Japan reforms of the tertiary sector have removed the institutionalised place of German in general education by abolishing the division between general and major study. Historically foreign languages were a compulsory part of the general education component of a Bachelors degree in Japan. While these reforms have facilitated the establishment of new departments and the introduction of new programmes of study, many of these have incorporated the German departments and their offerings thus reducing their visibility. Consequently there has been a decrease in demand for German. Similar reforms in the tertiary sector in Korea have abolished the traditional institutionalised status of German by increasing student choice and reducing the number of credits necessary for a major.

Foreign languages in the Asian education systems were historically often one of the 'additional' yet de facto compulsory subjects so changes in the regulatory framework of degrees have led to fewer opportunities for students to learn German (and other foreign languages) and have removed the element of compulsion. It is no longer compulsory to learn a second foreign language in Japan and Korea, for instance, but is rather a matter of student choice. In China the study of a foreign language is compulsory and English is usually the language chosen. In New Zealand foreign languages are not regarded as vital and are not compulsory at any level of education (except where individual schools decide to make foreign languages a compulsory part of their curriculum).

A major factor impacting on the importance placed on the study of foreign languages is the role languages play in the university entrance examinations or the requirements for entry to university level study. Foreign languages play little part in these examinations in Korea and Japan so are not considered important. In Australia, on the other hand, a number of foreign languages are included as examinable subjects in the TER (and similar) examinations. Despite this and the despite the learning of LOTE being promoted in recent years in Australia, languages are only afforded a marginal place in the curriculum in Australia.

Australia is somewhat of a special case in comparison to the other countries in this study, primarily as it is the only one to have developed and implemented an explicit *National Policy on Languages (NPL)* and policies recognising and promoting multiculturalism (as compared to New Zealand's emphasis on biculturalism in the curriculum and elsewhere).⁸⁷² These policies were regarded as necessary given the number of community languages regularly

⁸⁷² Refer to sections II.4.2.1, II.4.2.2 and II.4.3.1.

spoken in Australia and the impact of immigration over the past two centuries, particularly the post-war immigration scheme, which increased the diversity of languages spoken in Australia and eventually led to moves towards multiculturalism. In addition, there has been an overall increase in the non-English speaking population of Australia (especially in the Chinese, Arabic, Spanish, Indonesian/Malay and Japanese language communities) during the 1980s and 1990s.

However, while the *NPL* emphasised the teaching of nine key (foreign) languages (Chinese, Arabic, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Spanish, Greek and Indonesian/Malay) in addition to English and Aboriginal languages, the *Australian Languages And Literacy Policy (ALLP)* emphasised those languages considered economically beneficial. This was a significant move away from the cultural significance of learning languages and the emphasis on multiculturalism as it resulted in an increasing emphasis on those languages considered economically important, that is, the Asian languages.

As in Australia, a languages policy document was developed in New Zealand in 1991/1992 in response to political, economic and cultural factors. However, Waite's recommendations have not been implemented despite the need for a coherent and comprehensive approach to language issues in New Zealand. Such a policy is clearly required given that the complexity of language teaching and learning issues raises the question as to whether these can be left to be regulated by market forces, particularly given the time and resources required to learn a language fluently.

On the one hand the globalisation process has led to the dominance of English as the international language of communication. On the other, however, this has also led to the pragmatic diversification of language options, which has, in turn, led to increased competition for student numbers and resource allocations between the different foreign languages offered.

This diversification of the foreign languages offered is clearly evident in New Zealand where the numbers of secondary school students learning German remained relatively constant at approximately 8500 to 9000 during the decade from 1987 to 1996, while the numbers learning Japanese and Spanish, two languages introduced more recently, increased dramatically, mainly at the expense of French. The diversification of languages taught at New Zealand secondary schools was paralleled by a similar diversification in the courses in foreign languages offered at the universities. In 1965 New Zealand universities offered programmes in French, German, Greek, Hebrew, Italian, Latin, Maori, Russian, Swedish and Spanish, although not all these were offered at all universities. By 1980, Maori was offered at five universities, as was Latin. German and French remained on offer at all six universities, while Japanese had been introduced at Auckland, Massey, Canterbury and Waikato. Russian was offered at four universities. Auckland had also introduced Chinese

and Indonesian to its offerings, Victoria added Indonesian, Chinese and Spanish, and Canterbury had added Chinese to the languages offered. Parallel to the trends at the secondary school level, as the range of languages diversified, the enrolments in French dropped and the number enrolling in Maori and Japanese increased significantly. By the 1990s enrolments in the 'traditional' languages of French and Latin had declined further, while enrolments in Japanese and Spanish had increased considerably.⁸⁷³

The diversification process and the competition between languages have led to a change in the status of German in the countries included in this study. German has been overtaken by Japanese in virtually all of the countries included in this study, a direct reflection of the increased emphasis on the Asian languages as part of the reorientation towards the Asian-Pacific region. German remained the dominant second foreign language (after English) in Korea until the early 1990s despite the reintroduction of and increasing popularity of Japanese and Chinese. However, German is now just one of a group of five second foreign languages offered at most universities and is, after English and Japanese, the third most popular language. It remains an important language for Law students but English is now the important language for the Medical and Science professions. Japanese and Chinese are increasingly popular because of the linguistic similarities between these languages and Korean and more importantly because of pragmatic considerations, such as more opportunities for using the language(s) in trade or other employment.

Although since WWII the number of languages offered at the tertiary level in these countries has increased and diversified (significantly in Australia), a relatively small number of foreign languages are offered at universities in China, Japan, Korea and New Zealand. Somewhat paradoxically it appears that globalisation and internationalisation have reduced the amount and status of foreign language learning in the countries included in this study, in particular in Japan and Korea. Further evidence of this is the fact that German courses are now often taught in Japanese, Korean or Chinese in the three Asian countries and in English in Australia and New Zealand in order to appeal to a broader range of students and thus keep enrolment numbers up to an acceptable level. This, however, lowers the overall quality of the linguistic competencies of graduates.

IV.2 Responses of the Discipline of German Studies in Asia-Pacific: Some Key Developments.⁸⁷⁴

The changes during recent years in the parameters under which the discipline operates reflect the economic and political reality internationally. The 'cultural' approach to education has traditionally protected the tertiary education sector from market pressures. However, there have been major changes in these parameters. The greater emphasis on the

⁸⁷³ Cf. Bancroft 1980: 212-213, 218-219; Waite 1992 Part B: 71.

⁸⁷⁴ For further details refer to sections II.1.4.3, II.2.4.3, II.3.4.3, II.4.4.3 and III.4.3.

marketability of disciplines has led to the questioning of the value of foreign languages other than English. Those languages are now forced to adapt and develop specific responses in order to survive. Significant and systematic changes are needed to re-orientate the discipline within the overall internationalisation process and to ensure the discipline is forward looking and proactive.

In New Zealand, Japan and Korea the discipline has been relatively slow to respond to the changing parameters. In China the situation of the discipline is relatively positive with potential for further expansion given the large population base and the increasing political, economic and cultural relations between Germany and China and increasing cooperation with German companies in joint ventures. German also remains a compulsory foreign language for students of other disciplines at some universities in China. In general German departments in Australia have reacted quicker and more decisively than those in the other countries, introducing, for instance, interdisciplinary programmes at Queensland and Monash universities in the late 1980s. In contrast to departments in other countries several Australian universities, such as Monash and Melbourne, have increased their student enrolments during the 1990s, due partially to the historical links with German in Victoria, the organised and strong promotion of the subject and the innovative range of programmes and courses offered at these universities.

There have been a number of attempts to adapt to the changing environment in these countries, although this process perhaps needs to be more focused. Particularly as the diverse range and length of courses offered have led to a lack of uniformity and transition problems contributing to the negative image the discipline has. In New Zealand the ad hoc and often uncoordinated policy decisions regarding language teaching and learning have tended to follow the popular trends of the times.

In response to this situation the discipline has attempted to redefine itself in a number of ways, although to differing degrees in the five different countries included in this study. There are, however, a number of identifiable responses common to all five countries.

One such response has been **the amalgamation or incorporation of the German departments into larger administrative and curricular units, such as European Studies Departments or Schools of Languages and Cultures**. Often the individual departments had little choice about amalgamating with other departments as the level of available resources and student demand essentially meant they were forced to either amalgamate or face dissolution, particularly in New Zealand.

In Australia, for instance, administrative rationalisation has prompted a distinct move back to the larger departments or schools of European or Modern Languages, Literatures and Cultures (or similar). One such example is the amalgamation in 1992 of the Germanic

Studies Department at Melbourne with Russian to become the Department of Germanic Studies and Russian. Further redefinition occurred at Melbourne in 1993 with the establishment of the School of Languages comprising the departments of French and Italian Studies, Germanic Studies and Russian, Japanese and Chinese, Applied Linguistics and Language Studies and the Horwood Language Centre “in order to provide for greater interaction and sharing of expertise in the field of languages within the University” (Gassin 1992: 21-31).

At the University of New South Wales the existing language schools and units (Chinese, French, German, Greek, Indonesian, Russian, Spanish and Latin American) amalgamated in 1995 to form the School of Modern Language Studies and since then the Linguistics Unit and the Centre for European Studies have also been incorporated into the school. Another example is that of the University of New England, where German became part of the School of Modern Languages in the early 1990s, then part of the Department of European Languages and Cultures in 1996 and has now become part of the School of Languages, Cultures and Linguistics!

In Korea, the restructuring of faculties has led in most cases to the amalgamation of departments. In some instances the languages were amalgamated according to geographical areas, into European Studies departments (French and German) as opposed to Pacific Studies (English and Japanese). In other cases foreign language faculties were established with English being the clear favourite as a major subject and the less popular languages (French, German and Chinese) becoming mainly supporting subjects.

Structural changes have occurred in five of the six German departments/sections in New Zealand in response to the institutional reforms and restructuring during the past two decades. These five departments have amalgamated with other (mainly European) language, literature and linguistics departments. At the University of Auckland, for instance, the School of European Languages and Literatures was formed in February 1995 and comprises the French, Germanic Languages & Literature, Italian, Russian and Spanish Departments. A similar development has occurred at Victoria University in Wellington. At Massey University, the Department of European Languages was established in 1993 and comprised French and German. Spanish was introduced in 1996. At Otago University, the German Department became part of the School of Languages in 1994 and now has become part of the School of Language, Literature and Performing Arts. The German Department at the University of Waikato became part of the Department of European and Hispanic Studies along with French and Spanish in 1997.

The diversification of the ‘German’ courses and programmes offered to include components such as film and media, political history, the study of literature in context or in translation, practical applications of German, contemporary German and

European issues and linguistics is another such response. In some cases, such as at Auckland University, this has led to the diversification of or changes in the 'major' in German from language and literature to language, literature and linguistics. Courses in linguistics were introduced at Auckland in the late 1980s and diversified during the early 1990s, primarily due to the appointment of a staff member with expertise in German Linguistics. By 1996/1997, students could opt to major in language, literature and linguistics or could include the 'Language in Society' course at the 200 level, the 'Lexicology and Lexicography' at the 300 level and the graduate level courses, 'German Lexicography', the 'Linguistic Analysis of Contemporary Written German', language history and 'Contemporary German', in their programme of study.

German at the University of Waikato moved from a major focused primarily on language and literature and culture in 1986/1987 (whereby the cultural studies courses offered encompassed at least in part the issues facing 'modern' Germany) to a major in language, literature and contemporary social, political, economic and educational German and European issues. And at Victoria University, students majoring in German were encouraged to enrol in both the literature and the 'Economy, Society & Culture' streams as a means of broadening the scope of their study of German and of determining what the main focus of their later studies should be. Graduate study, however, was only possible as an extension of the literature stream. At Canterbury University, the Department attempted to adapt and strengthen the cultural component of its offerings in order to attract and retain students by offering literature and society courses in English.⁸⁷⁵

In China the Germanistik discipline has developed into a diverse and inclusive subject that combines 'traditional' Germanistik, *DaF*, German Studies and translation and interpretation training. In order to diversify the programmes offered for students majoring in German courses in Foreign Economics, Business German, German Politics and International Cultural Relations, for instance, were introduced.

The development of vocationally-oriented courses and programmes has been one significant innovation within the discipline of German Studies in the Asian-Pacific region. One such programme is the four-semester programme in Business German introduced at the University of Queensland in 1992 as part of a strategic decision to broaden the range of academic courses offered by the department to include vocationally-oriented qualifications. An increasing number of students are coming from other business and management disciplines and from those already employed, who would not otherwise have studied German. The success of this programme is apparently due to the practical orientation of the content (with students being prepared for the internationally recognised certificate, *Prüfung Wirtschaftsdeutsch International*), the communicative and interactive teaching methods and

⁸⁷⁵ Cf. Lopdell 1995: 147.

the optional three-month stay in Germany comprising a one-month intensive Business German and German-European business practices course at the Carl Duisberg Centre in Munich and a two-month placement in a German company.⁸⁷⁶

Another example of vocationally-oriented courses are the in-service courses, including the intensive live-in courses in German language and LOTE methodology, offered by the German Department at the University of Queensland in conjunction with the Queensland Department of Education.⁸⁷⁷

Education in China has in general a more vocational or practical (as opposed to an academic) focus. The development of German in China is closely linked with the transfer of expertise and technology and cooperation between the two countries. There has been and is no clear division between Germanistik and *DaF* (in its widest sense) in China because of this historically functional emphasis on the use of German (i.e. as an instrument of importing and assimilating scientific and technological knowledge) as compared with the traditional educational and cultural emphasis in Japan and Korea. Many German programmes now offered in China are based on the principle of combining the study of German with a vocational or professional subject.

German as foreign language courses, for instance, are offered parallel to the major subject, particularly for students from the scientific and technical disciplines. One such programme is the *Diplomteilstudiengang Fachdeutsch Technik* developed in 1991 by the German Language Centre at Zhejiang University.⁸⁷⁸ The objective of this programme is to train Chinese engineering students so they can communicate competently in the technical fields necessary for their careers and academic study and to not require a translator or interpreter, who does not have subject specific knowledge, but who can speak German well. In the three-year programme, which runs parallel to the students' second through fourth years of study in their major subject, students are taught the skills that the employment market demands, such as the ability to write business correspondence, a high degree of flexibility and the ability to network with other cultures. Students also undertake an industry internship during the summer holidays between years three and four.

One fundamental characteristic is the three-phase model of language learning incorporated into this programme, that is, (i) the attainment of basic German language skills; (ii) the introduction to the technical terminology in technical and scientific areas along with continued tuition in general German; and (iii) the transition to learning of technical terminology in German.⁸⁷⁹

⁸⁷⁶ Cf. Jurgensen & Corkhill 1988: xvi; Braunert 1993; Fernandez *et al.* 1993b: 38-40; Jurgensen 1995: ix; Horst 1998; <http://www.uq.edu.au/departments/index.phtml> (24 May 2001).

⁸⁷⁷ Cf. Fernandez *et al.* 1993b 38-40, 43-52; Tisdell 1999a.

⁸⁷⁸ Cf. Hess 1992a: 437-464, 1992b: 353-357, 359-367; Steinmetz 1995: 532, 1996: 172-193; Buch 1998.

⁸⁷⁹ Cf. Steinmetz 1995: 544; Buch 1998: 453-454.

The postgraduate level programme for specialist translators and interpreters at Tongji University is another example of the vocational programmes introduced by the discipline in China during the past two decades.⁸⁸⁰ This programme is designed for graduates of technical subjects who have at least some basic German skills, and includes a *Praktikum*. Courses in Modern German, an introduction to specialist or technical language, mechanical engineering or electronics, translation and interpretation, Chinese-German contrastive linguistics and English are compulsory and optional courses include economics, business correspondence and conferencing techniques in foreign trade.

There have also been a number of innovations in New Zealand that have increased the vocational focus of the German programmes offered. At the University of Waikato, for instance, the German Department was involved in the development of the International Management Programme (IMP) in the early 1990s.⁸⁸¹ Students undertaking the IMP major in Management Studies are required to take at least eight courses from those offered by the (European or Asian) language departments and sections (usually those papers required for the major in that particular discipline). At Otago University a major in International Business Studies was introduced in 2000 (within the Management offerings), of which foreign language and culture courses form an integral part.⁸⁸²

The development of interdisciplinary and integrated programmes, such as German Studies or European Studies, has been perhaps the most significant response within the discipline during the past two decades. The development of programmes such as European studies is a direct reflection of the changing situation in Europe, the need to diversify and adapt given decreases in the numbers of student enrolling in German and the increase in popularity of Asian languages and the demand for vocationally-oriented programmes. These also address the financial problems facing the (smaller) foreign languages departments given the recent reforms in the tertiary sector.

When defining a programme as 'integrated' one must clarify whether the programme is simply a modified major comprising diverse components or whether it is a fully integrated programme where all papers within the degree form part of the designated programme. There are clearly a number of difficulties associated with diverse components being included in a major, including the limited number of hours that can be allocated to the different components given the total number of papers (normally the equivalent of eight) required for a major in New Zealand, for instance.

⁸⁸⁰ Cf. Fluck 1984; Sui 1988: 111; Fluck & Liang 1989: 97-101.

⁸⁸¹ Cf. Knüfermann 1993a: 514.

⁸⁸² Cf. <http://www.otago.ac.nz/german/German/GermanDept/Skills.html> (6 March 2001).

A major in European Studies as part of the B.A. degree or as part of the degree programme in European Studies (B.A. (European Studies)) was introduced at the University of Western Australia in 1995. In the former, a European language is not required. In the latter, however, at least two years of a European language must be studied concurrently. The first-year units focus on the societies and cultures of contemporary Europe, are taught from an interdisciplinary perspective and provide a comparative framework for units on European history, politics, literature, languages and culture taught in various departments of the faculty. Units in years two and three deal with central aspects of European civilisation on the basis of literature, film, social theory and historical texts. The introduction of this programme was part of a significant reorientation within the department and the School of European Languages at the University of Western Australia in recent years.⁸⁸³

At the University of New South Wales, an integrated Bachelor of Arts (European Studies) degree programme combining the study of European languages (one of French, German, Modern Greek, Russian or Spanish), European Studies (including courses on European integration, Central and Eastern Europe since 1989 and developments in divided Europe and Germany from 1945 to 1989) and a social science discipline (such as Economics, Geography, History, History and Philosophy of Science, Human Resources Management, Industrial Relations, Philosophy, Policy Studies, Political Science, Science, Technology and Society, Sociology, Culture and Communication and Social Anthropology) was introduced during the mid 1990s.

Another example in Australia is the interdepartmental European Studies programme coordinated by the Department of Germanic and Swedish Studies at Melbourne University. The programme aims to ensure that postgraduate students with some European language training (<http://www.arts.unimelb.edu.au/courses/rags/handbook/disciplines/european.html> (17 April 2001)):

become skilled analysts of the processes and institutions that have formed the distinct cultural and political entity that is Europe.

Students can specialise in contemporary European society and culture, the European Union and European fine arts within the programme, which can be taken as a Graduate Certificate in Arts (European Studies) comprising four courses in one semester, as a Graduate Diploma of Arts (European Studies) comprising eight courses in one year or as a PhD. Selected courses taught by the departments of English, French, Political Science, Philosophy, History, French, Italian, Art History, Cinema Studies, German and Swedish may be included in the first two.

⁸⁸³ Cf. P. Morgan (University of WA), *Personal correspondence*, 24 May 1998; <http://www.arts.uwa.edu.au/EuropeanWWW/es/UnderPost.html> (17 April 2001).

Another example of an interdisciplinary programme introduced in the region during the past two decades is the multidisciplinary European Studies (B.A.) programme at the Hong Kong Baptist University.⁸⁸⁴ This has two primary aims: (i) to give students knowledge of the basic features of the European world, and (ii) to prepare them for future employment in the fields of European-Asian relations. This is primarily a social sciences programme with political science as the core discipline around which the other subjects (including language studies) are grouped. The first four semesters of the German stream are spent in Hong Kong, the next two in Germany or Switzerland and the final two in Hong Kong. Students are required to research and write a final dissertation or Honours project to complete the programme.

In Japan, a programme in German for students majoring in Law or Political Science in the Law Faculty at Keio University was introduced after the effects of the 1991 reforms and the curriculum changes in 1993 at Keio University itself began to become evident.⁸⁸⁵ This programme comprises the major subject (Law or Political Science), foreign languages, Humanities and Social Science subjects and a number of papers, which the students choose themselves (including foreign language, Law, Political Science, Science, subjects from other faculties and sport).

Characteristics of this programme include intensive language classes for three years (four double periods, each 90 minutes long per week);⁸⁸⁶ the use of computers and audiovisual equipment in classes, cooperation between the lecturers from different disciplines; an 'Introduction to Area and Culture Studies' course, small classes, more freedom of choice for students in designing their own programme of study and the opportunity to visit a German-speaking country in the summer (comprising a four-week language course and an individual research project). The overall aim is to ensure that the students are competent to use their language and cultural skills in their later careers and to be able to act as intermediaries between the two cultures.

A number of New Zealand universities have also introduced programmes or majors in European Studies during the past decade. One such programme is the major in European Studies within the B.A. at Victoria University that comprises three language courses up to the 300 level (in one of French, German, Italian or Russian) plus three other non-language papers with a European component (for instance, in history, geography, politics or literature). Core courses include 'Introduction to European Studies' at the 100 level and 'The Making of Modern Europe' at the 300 level.⁸⁸⁷ Victoria University also introduced a major in Modern Languages comprising two or more languages and linguistics in the early 1990s.

⁸⁸⁴ Cf. Widera 1992; Hess 1996: 50-56, 2000: 10, 1999a, 1999b; Stählin 1999; <http://www.hkbu.edu.hk/~europe> (12 May 2001); <http://www.iik-duesseldorf.de/beispielprogramme/hongkong.php3> (12 May 2001).

⁸⁸⁵ Cf. Sambe 1996: 197-206; Mandelartz 1999: 7-8; Mandelartz & Yamamoto 1999: 11-12; Slivensky & Boeckmann 2000: 33-34; Richter 2000.

⁸⁸⁶ Cf. Richter 2000.

⁸⁸⁷ Cf. Smith 1997: 70-71; <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/home/undergraduate/subjects/eurl.html> (6 March 2001); School of European Languages 2000.

Massey University introduced a major in European Studies in 1998 that comprises three key components:

- Language courses, including at least one course at the 300 level in the primary language and one 100 level course in a second European language;
- A selection of core papers, including 'European Civilisation' (which aims to increase the awareness of the significance of Europe, fundamental elements and major achievements in European civilisation and its continuing links with New Zealand) and 'Contemporary European Literature' (which focuses on current issues in contemporary European writing); and
- At least two courses at the 300 level in Europe-related papers from Classical Studies, English, French, German, History, Music, Philosophy and Politics.

Since 2000 new students of German (and the other European languages) as a major have been required to enrol in the major in European Studies.⁸⁸⁸

Another example of this type of response is at the University of Waikato where students could undertake a programme in European Studies within the existing regulatory framework of the B.A. degree during the 1990s (and with a little modification continue to be able to do so). This interdisciplinary programme comprised courses in four different areas: European languages, History or Politics, Management Studies and 'Culture'.⁸⁸⁹ The programme was concerned with the languages, cultures, history, politics and business environment of Europe and designed to familiarise New Zealand students with the complex cultural, historical, political and social facets of one of the world's major regions. This was an integrated programme of study, not a major in European Studies as is the case at the other New Zealand universities offering programmes in European Studies. A student might, for instance, major in History with Spanish as their first support, Management Studies as the second support and Linguistics as their third, a combination which could be useful when seeking employment in the diplomatic or foreign affairs and trade sectors.

Another aspect of the shift towards German Studies in the European context by the German Section at Waikato has been the development during recent years of applied research projects at the graduate level. The emphasis of these is to research issues where New Zealand and Germany are interconnected in the business, tourism, education and cultural sectors, and to make use of the language, area and cultural knowledge acquired by language students. Through these projects students gain an insight into the organisations, thereby enhancing employment opportunities, while at the same time furthering their academic studies. Examples of such projects include: a study of the marketing of New Zealand language schools in Germany; an investigation into the language support and

⁸⁸⁸ Cf. Department of European Languages 1997: 36; <http://www.massey.ac.nz/~wwhusoc/prog/german.html> (6 March 2001).

⁸⁸⁹ 'Culture' includes areas such as Screen and Media Studies, Linguistics, Philosophy, English, Drama, Art History, Music, Religious Studies.

education given to new migrants in New Zealand and Germany; and research into the work of New Zealand and German trade and affiliated organisations.

These applied projects were developed partially due to the demand placed on language departments internationally to realise the “relevance of their discipline[s] to the ‘real world’.” (Victoria 1996: 9.) Another reason behind the introduction of graduate research projects has been the intrinsic realisation that language students tend to be more culturally aware and, therefore, have greater ‘access’ to and interaction with other people and cultures. Research projects, which extend the students’ knowledge of (a particular aspect of) a culture and language, while utilising the students’ learned abilities, are a positive addition to integrated language studies and must give them the competitive advantage as individuals in the employment market and in further research or study.

At Auckland University, the Research Centre for Germanic Connections with New Zealand and the Pacific was established at Auckland University in September 1999 to encourage “research into the links, both contemporary and historical, between Northern and Central Europe on the one hand and New Zealand and the Pacific on the other.” (<http://www.arts.auckland.ac.nz/eur/ger/rescen.html> (6 March 2001)) This is an interdisciplinary body closely associated with the Department of Germanic Languages and Literatures and the School of European Languages and Literatures and gives students, primarily at the graduate level, the opportunity to undertake and publish interdisciplinary research.

Another response adopted by many of the German departments or sections in the countries included in this study has been **an attempt to focus on offering key programmes or components**, such as the focus on language teaching at the University of New England in Australia (due mainly to the staffing cuts this department suffered during the 1990s).

In China, the Foreign Languages University Beijing offers Germanistik or German as a Foreign Language in several streams after the students’ basic studies. The streams offered are Foreign Policy and Foreign Affairs, Economic Relations with Foreign Countries and Foreign Trade and Language and Literature. All the courses are taught in German and concerned primarily with German-Chinese relations in the political, economic and social fields. Students must complete a number of courses in the other streams and thus gain an insight into the broader discipline. In addition there are common language courses for all students. Another such example in China is that of the German department at the Foreign Languages University Tianjin, which focuses on training of translators and interpreters.

As with the Foreign Languages University Beijing, the German department at Dokkyo University, one of the largest German departments in Japan, offers students three possible study programmes: the traditional literature, language and linguistics, or German art history and philosophy or German history, politics and sociology.⁸⁹⁰

The introduction of *DaF* or *Interkulturelle Germanistik* programmes is another response of the discipline to the changing parameters. In China, for instance, the Department for Intercultural German Studies was founded in 1994 at University Qingdao in conjunction with the University of Bayreuth. The programme offered is based on Wierlacher's model of Intercultural German Studies,⁸⁹¹ and emphasises many elements of comparative cultural studies, including *Landeskunde* courses and courses aimed at giving students an understanding of the two cultures, such as 'Comparison of Chinese and German everyday culture', 'Cultural exchange between China and Germany', 'Comparison of Chinese and German communication behaviour' and 'Culturally specified patterns of behaviour'. Other courses include 'Modern German language studies', 'German literary studies', 'Introduction to the *LK* of German-speaking countries', interpretation and translation courses and 'German in Business and Science' (Liu 1999: 787-789). The students are also given the opportunity to utilise their German skills in intercultural situations and in a workplace setting during a *Praktikum*.⁸⁹²

The programmes offered at Tenri University in Japan (where the Foreign Languages Faculty was restructured into a Faculty for Intercultural Studies) are a further example of the development of intercultural courses. Four streams are offered within the German department: Everyday culture, Language culture, German History and German Society. Each study programme comprises subject specific seminars and lectures, and an interdisciplinary course "German Communication" is offered for those students majoring in the subject (Wakisaka 2000: 124-125).

In New Zealand, the University of Waikato has been the only one to introduce courses in *Deutsch als Fremdsprache (DaF)* for graduate students and for German students of *DaF*, who come to New Zealand for a semester or a year abroad and or to complete the *Praktikum* component of their degree programme.⁸⁹³ These courses include '*Rahmenbedingungen des Fachs Deutsch in Neuseeland. Zur Situation des Deutschlehrers im Ausland (DaF)*', '*Praktikum DaF*', '*Spracherwerb und Literatur an neuseeländischen Schulen und Hochschulen (DaF)*' and '*Deutschsprachige Einwanderer in Neuseeland (DaF)*'. The introduction of these courses has been part of the overall re-orientation in Waikato's German Studies programme and primarily due to the research and teaching interests of the then Chairperson of Department/Head of the German Section.

⁸⁹⁰ Cf. Beißwenger 2000: 77-78.

⁸⁹¹ Cf. Wierlacher 1985a, 1987a, 1987b, 1990, 1994, *et al.* 1996.

⁸⁹² Cf. Zhao 1998: 693; Bräsel 1998: 118-120; Liu 1999: 790.

⁸⁹³ Cf. Knüfermann 2000: 513-514.

Another discernable trend within the discipline in these five countries has been **changes in the language courses offered**, including the use of modern media (particularly in Australia), the inclusion of internationally recognised certificates of language competency and an increased communicative emphasis. These include introducing German communication methods into teaching in Japan, for example, as a means of introducing the Japanese students to the German way of greeting others by shaking hands when the students enter the classroom. In Australia courses for (near) native speakers have been introduced at a number of universities due to the high number of descendents of German-speaking immigrants and their descendents. Australia has also increased its investment in and development of technology in German programmes significantly during the past two decades.⁸⁹⁴

In an attempt to standardise the language programme offerings in China a nationwide curriculum for the basic language competencies of students majoring in German was introduced in the late 1990s. Some departments have introduced or experimented with projects using the internet in *LK* courses. In the past teachers had limited opportunities to include up-to-date information and topics in *LK* courses in China because of the difficulties with the postal system and newspaper subscriptions. However, in the age of the internet and computer information technology, this is becoming less of a problem.⁸⁹⁵ The German department at the Foreign Languages University in Guangzhou introduced computer and internet work into its *LK* course in 1998/99.⁸⁹⁶ Unfortunately this pilot project had to be stopped because of high costs to the department!

At Hokkaido University in Japan there has been a move to reduce the number of different teachers teaching the various parts of the courses and to increase the cooperation and coordination (of textbooks, teaching materials and grammar taught, for example) between those teachers. Other initiatives introduced in Japan, for example, include the use of international language proficiency examinations (such as the *Österreichische Sprachdiplom Deutsch*) and certificates to increase the motivation and resulting communicative competencies of the students; the use of various forms of media (including international television news, newspaper and magazine articles, statistics and cartoons) to introduce comparative exercises and global topics into language lessons, and the introduction of the *Diplom Deutsch in Japan (DDJ)*, a nationally recognised certificate of attainment which students can gain by sitting an examination.

⁸⁹⁴ Refer to section II.4.4.3 for details.

⁸⁹⁵ Cf. Liu 1982: 32-33; Saarbeck *et al.* 1994: 592.

⁸⁹⁶ Cf. Thelen-von Damnitz 2000.

In New Zealand, the number and type of German language courses offered at the tertiary level have increased and diversified during the past two decades, particularly at Auckland University. Students of German at the undergraduate level at Auckland could undertake a *Sprachpraktikum* designed to further develop and extend the skills of those students with already advanced written and oral skills, a course in 'German in Business' and another on 'Translation in Theory and Practice'. At Otago the German section is increasingly emphasising the use of modern technologies in its language teaching and other courses, including an online 100 level German culture paper, 'Gateway to Germany'.⁸⁹⁷

By the mid 1990s, in addition to the core language courses, students at most New Zealand universities were able to sit the internationally recognised certificates of German language proficiency, *Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache*, *Kleines Deutsches Sprachdiplom* and *Großes Deutsches Sprachdiplom*. Students were prepared for these as part of the core language courses offered or in some cases through separate courses offered specifically for this purpose. For example, one requirement of the KDS is the writing of essays based on German fiction.⁸⁹⁸ In 1997 two novels, *Jauche und Levkojen* by Christina Brückner and *Das Feuerschiff* by Lenz were studied as part of the 300 level language course at Canterbury in preparation for the KDS.

A further response of the discipline in the Asia-Pacific has been **the development and promotion of cooperative ventures and programmes with German companies, organisations and institutions in order to add a new dimension to the programmes offered**. (These dimensions would often otherwise have been unaffordable in the country in question given the available resources and student demand.) At Tongji University in China regular block courses in Business German are taught by visiting LektorInnen from Philipps University in Marburg as part of the project 'Wirtschaftsdeutsch' that was introduced in 1995. Another such partnership is that between Hunan College of International Culture and the IIK in Düsseldorf, which offers specialist preparatory courses in China for students with international management as part of their major studies. Additionally in 1989 the Institute of Sino-German Economic Law at Nanjing University was established in conjunction with Göttingen University.

Another such initiative, established with German financial support in 1985, was the *Ausbildungszentrum für deutsche Sprache Beijing (AfdS)* at the University for Foreign Trade and Foreign Relations in Beijing.⁸⁹⁹ The *AfdS* specialises in training Chinese managers and experts, who work in the area of economic and technological cooperation, in the language and area studies skills they will require for further education or training programmes in Germany, including the ability to:

⁸⁹⁷ Cf. Smith 1997: 68; Alm-Lequeux 1998; <http://www.otago.ac.nz/German/HeimatFrame.html> (18 September 1997).

⁸⁹⁸ Cf. <http://www.grmn.canterbury.ac.nz/GRMN301.html> (17 September 1997).

⁸⁹⁹ Cf. Schlenker 1996.

- Communicate in the workplace and in everyday life in Germany;
- Hold simple prepared technical or subject specific conversations;
- Follow reports and explanations in the normal tempo of speaking;
- Independently analyse different kinds of texts using the appropriate reading techniques;
- Explain after a short preparation simple technical processes and plants or to describe economic data and facts; and
- Write private and official letters in the correct format.

Cheju University in Korea has established a partnership with Bonn University whereby students at Cheju can attend an intensive summer school where *DaF* students from Germany assist with the teaching. Students and academics at Cheju are also encouraged to spend some time researching at Bonn University and since 1997 a four-week language course has been offered in Bonn for students at Cheju. Such ventures are particularly important given the increasing number of Korean, Chinese and Japanese students wishing to study abroad and the fact that Germany is one of the favourite destinations!

As part of the (re)definition of the discipline's offerings **the need to increase and diversify the opportunities for contact with the target language and cultures** has been repeatedly expressed in the literature analysed for this study. Opportunities, for instance, for students (including those from other disciplines) to study and or work in German-speaking countries have been and continue to be developed and promoted thereby increasing the usefulness of the language and increasing the diversity, attractiveness and market-orientation of the discipline.

Extramural activities formed an important part of the study of German throughout the period concerned in all five countries, and the range of opportunities for students to utilise their language (and other) skills outside of formal study increased during the same period. Most departments/sections offered their students a number of opportunities to live, study and or work in German-speaking countries. The German Section at Waikato, for example, offered its students a Vacation Work Scheme, where students work in the Hospitality Industry in the Black Forest. Other activities include the *Deutsche Woche* at Monash University in Australia, scholarships and exchange programmes of various tenures (awarded by the *DAAD*, *Goethe-Institut* and the German, Swiss and Austrian governments, for instance), teaching assistantships at high schools in Germany or work placements in international firms, *Goethe-Institut* courses, departmental conversation groups, sports teams, drama groups and choirs, seminars by visiting academics, German, Swiss or Austrian clubs, film evenings, performances by visiting German music and theatre groups, German Camps, departmental social evenings and dinners and Goethe Society activities.

Some departments have even considered making a period of study abroad a compulsory part of their degree programmes. The National German Summer School offered by *Goethe-Institut* in Australia provides another opportunity for increased exposure to the language, as do the intensive six-week summer school programmes offered by Melbourne and Monash, which can be credited towards students' degrees. And at Adelaide, students are encouraged to participate in the four-week German Summer School in Germany comprising an intensive language course at the Prolog Language School in Berlin and a cultural programme (<http://www.adelaide.edu.au/cesagl/germhb.html> (24 May 2001)).

During the past two decades there was an increasing tendency for departments/sections to emphasise these extramural activities, in particular the opportunities for overseas travel, work and study, as 'drawcards' to students choosing whether or not to study German. In New Zealand, for instance, the need for public relations and marketing of the discipline, the German departments/sections and the available programmes and other activities has become increasingly evident in recent years. Particularly as there has been an increased tendency during the 1990s within the tertiary sector overall to focus on the marketability and applicability of degree programmes offered. The Humanities disciplines have continued to feel the impact of this trend, particularly given the perceived lack of professional orientation of the language (and indeed most Humanities) degree offerings and students' reluctance to accumulate high debt if they cannot identify the professional value of the qualification. Students at the school level appear poorly informed about tertiary study options including languages. Many of them, for example, appear to hold the mistaken view that they must focus on *one* discipline only (such as Law, Medicine or Management) and subsequently are not aware of the opportunities to combine the study of a particular major discipline with that of a language, nor do they realise the value of such combinations.

As a result there has been an increasing trend towards explicit Public Relations and promotion of the value of foreign languages overall and, in particular, the European languages.⁹⁰⁰ This has included measures such as:

- Promoting the available overseas travel, study and work opportunities;
- Promoting the unique characteristics of each university's programme;
- Countering the perception of languages degrees or humanities degree as being non-vocational, by recommending that students enrol in language courses in addition to their Law or Management studies; and
- Branding the department/section(s) as being different from the other providers of language studies.

⁹⁰⁰ Cf. Knüfermann 2000: 508.

The Department of European and Hispanic Studies at the University of Waikato, for instance, instigated a proactive public relations campaign for the Department as a whole and appointed a Public Relations Co-ordinator to implement this in 1999. Promotional activities undertaken included a departmental social evening to which the national language advisors and teachers of European languages in the greater Waikato area were invited, a series of academic lectures at the University designed to heighten the Department's profile within the academic community, an Information Day where secondary school students visited the Department to obtain information on their chosen subjects, a series of school visits, a number of magazine articles (both in English and German language papers, including the EU Newsletter published in Canberra), an Information Evening for (potential) students of European languages, their parents, teachers and career advisors. Topics covered at this included: (i) the European Union and its importance to New Zealand, (ii) planning study programmes and careers, (iii) bridging University study and professional development, and (iv) scholarships, teaching assistantships and work placements overseas. And in November 1999 the Department hosted a seminar on "New Zealand and its relations with Europe" to which speakers on the international relations between New Zealand and Europe, business, tourism and European languages and European languages in the educational context were invited.

IV.3 Towards A Functional Definition of the Discipline of German Studies in New Zealand.

It is evident from the responses of the discipline in the different countries that irrespective of national differences the pressures exerted on the discipline in the five countries by the process of globalisation and internationalisation are very similar. The discipline of German Studies cannot isolate itself from the developments occurring internationally, such as the increasing dominance of English as the international *lingua franca*, the trend towards vocational subjects and the increasingly pragmatic justification for the learning of foreign languages as opposed to the traditional cultural justification of the study of foreign languages. Nor are these developments reversible in the foreseeable future.

The responses outlined in the previous section show there is a clear trend internationally towards the development of niche markets and interdisciplinary programmes through which the discipline can contribute productively to the further development of the respective countries. Consistent with this, Picht (1987: 43-44) stresses the fact that increasing internationalisation and interdependence place special demands on the development of (intercultural or interdisciplinary) German Studies, in order that students can fully appreciate and relate to the working habits, thought patterns, lifestyle and other aspects of the German-speaking cultures. German Studies within a clearly structured degree programme (such as the Bachelor of Arts), which combines the study of European languages and cultures with

the study of economics, history, political science and geography, for instance, opens up new career possibilities for German language students.⁹⁰¹

An analysis of the responses of the discipline in the five countries included in this study shows that German Studies in the sense of Germanistik continues to hold an important place. The value of literary studies, language studies and cultural studies in its broadest form continues to be regarded as an essential dimension of the discipline.

New Zealand cannot remain isolated from these international trends and the necessity to respond. The discipline in New Zealand, therefore, must take cognisance of these developments and respond to the pressures the discipline finds itself faced with by defining its function and role within the environment of interrelated political, economic and educational parameters that it operates in. The traditional concept of Germanistik is only one part of the subject: in other words, while the discipline of German Studies in New Zealand, consistent with international trends, should retain a strong cultural component, it cannot define its role solely on an understanding of its cultural importance, but must respond to the challenge to become 'berufsrelevant'.⁹⁰²

New Zealand requires graduates who are competent foreign language specialists with area specific knowledge and who can apply their skills and competencies to niche markets. The discipline must, therefore, encourage combinations of skills, adaptability, innovation and flexibility given the ever changing international market, the development of international cooperation and communication and the rapid political and economic reforms. Integrated programmes combining the study of German with other (vocationally-oriented) disciplines are a logical way forward.⁹⁰³

In the context of the responses of the discipline internationally, it appears desirable that the discipline of German Studies in New Zealand develops two clear foci that would do justice to both its cultural/literary mission and its functional role in the labour market. It is recommended that these two foci be 'housed' in two separate centres/departments. **Centre/department (A) would continue to focus on Germanistik proper, that is, the study of, in particular, language and literature, while centre/department (B) would specialise in the applied dimensions of German Studies, from specifically targeted language courses to programmes in Intercultural Studies, European Studies and or other integrated study programmes.**

⁹⁰¹ Cf. Knüfermann 1993a: 515.

⁹⁰² Cf. Wierlacher 1980c: 19; Picht 1987.

⁹⁰³ Cf. Waite 1992: 21.

German Studies in the 'traditional' sense of Germanistik would lend itself to cooperation with other literary and arts disciplines as well as to the support of disciplines such as Film and Media Studies, Music, Drama or Philosophy.

The responses of the discipline internationally to the challenges posed by globalisation and internationalisation show that the development of the applied dimension(s) has been of major significance in recent years. The development of a Centre/department of Applied German Studies would promote the education of future intermediaries between New Zealand and the German-speaking countries.⁹⁰⁴ These intermediaries would be specialists in the German language (including subject specific 'technical' language) and contemporary German and European issues, similar to graduates of the Hong Kong and Western Australian models of European Studies.⁹⁰⁵

The programme should include a component of Business German and a *Praktikum* in a German-speaking country (or a German firm or organisation in New Zealand) and a component on the history of German language, culture and immigration in New Zealand as well as the diverse relations between New Zealand and German-speaking Europe. The programme would ideally be a four-year one, and, therefore, should include an Honours year in keeping with the New Zealand degree regulations.

The Business German component could lead to the attainment of *Prüfung Wirtschaftsdeutsch International*, a practical and internationally recognised certificate based on German language skills and business practice. This component should tie in with the opportunity to study and work in German-speaking Europe similar to that offered as part of the major in Business German at the University of Queensland in Australia. The integrated study and work abroad component could either be a semester or a year in length. This could include intensive language courses and courses in European integration, German and European business practice and economic and trade policy at a German institution, such as the Carl-Duisburg Centre(s), followed by a *Praktikum* in a German firm or organisation.

The programme should include an applied Honours directed research project or thesis in one of the areas covered in the programme or related to the student's *Praktikum*. These research projects would give students a deeper insight into the similarities and differences between the countries and cultures as well as enable them to make contacts and develop skills that could assist them in later employment.

⁹⁰⁴ Cf. Hess 1999: 181; Reichert's 1999: 824-826.

⁹⁰⁵ Programmes such as European Studies would require the coordination and pooling of resources with other language (and related) disciplines, such as French and Spanish. This is, however, already occurring in New Zealand so should not be an impediment to the development of this programme.

At the (post)graduate level the focus could be on interdisciplinary European Studies and relations between New Zealand and the German-speaking countries and could be modelled on the postgraduate European Studies programme at Melbourne University. The issue of (post)graduate level study of German is a major challenge facing the discipline in all five countries included in this study. In Korea, for example, only about four percent of German students continue onto graduate level studies with similar figures being quoted for China. In New Zealand there has been a significant decline in the graduate level study of German at some universities, which is partially due to the increased cost of higher education. It would, therefore, appear imperative that the discipline develops integrated or interdisciplinary programmes at this level to retain and attract students.

This Centre of Applied German Studies could also offer intensive or short-term courses in Business German and German and European business practice to industry and the business sector and obtain contract research to increase its funding levels and give staff and students additional research opportunities and contacts in the trade and tourism sectors, for instance.

The implementation of the recommended two centres would require the following to be considered:

- The history of expertise in particular departments and universities;
- The existing range of programmes and resources of the current German departments/sections;
- The structural or regulatory framework of degrees at different universities; and
- The geographical location of universities in the North and South Islands of New Zealand.

The advantages of the creation of two centres are as follows:

- It would provide a critical mass in terms of student numbers;⁹⁰⁶
- It would allow for the pooling of staffing resources, thereby guaranteeing adequate research and teaching capacity, and with this internationally acceptable levels of professionalisation;
- The model would make the most productive use of limited financial resources in the current context of tertiary education in New Zealand;
- The model would offer students clearly focused study and career perspectives; and
- The model would allow a flexible response to future changes in market demand;

⁹⁰⁶ The concept of 'centres of excellence' or competencies at the tertiary level is favoured by the current New Zealand government so departments and universities may be forced to implement such 'foci' in the near future. The issue of critical mass of student numbers and teaching and research capabilities is, therefore, an integral factor when considering the future structuring of German programmes in New Zealand.

The most significant disadvantage of this model is the fact that it would create a situation where not all students had access to full German Studies programmes at all New Zealand universities. However, this is already the case with other disciplines, such as Medicine, Dentistry, Law, the Fine Arts and Veterinary Science, given the small population base in New Zealand.

It is, therefore, recommended that ‘service’ courses in German language and *Landeskunde* be retained at the other universities in New Zealand, possibly in the context of ‘University Language Institutes’. It is important to maintain language and cultural competencies in the major areas of New Zealand’s relations with German-speaking Europe in order to expand and diversify access to German-speaking Europe and the Eastern European countries. The retention of service courses would ensure that subjects such as Tourism, Management Studies and the Sciences would continue to benefit from area specific expertise.

In planning for the development of the two proposed centres of German Studies in New Zealand, the following **additional suggestions** should also be considered:

- That specialist German language teaching training courses be developed within the department offerings (as these are unlikely to be offered in the Education departments/schools at all New Zealand universities). Such courses should include components on German linguistics, the use of the different forms of information technology in language teaching, *Landeskunde* and the complexity of factors that influence the teaching of German (and other foreign languages) in New Zealand. These courses could be constructed in a similar way to the intensive German course for teachers and students considering becoming teachers at the University of Queensland, Australia.⁹⁰⁷
- That an intensive summer school programme combining language and *Landeskunde* studies (similar to the Australian example and the Cheju University example in Korea) be developed by the *Goethe-Institut* and one (or more) of the German departments/sections with assistance from *DaF Praktikanten* or *LektorInnen* from German institutions.⁹⁰⁸ This would give those students participating additional opportunities to use their language skills in an interactive setting. This should be able to be credited towards their major in German or European Studies.

⁹⁰⁷ Cf. Tisdell 1999a.

⁹⁰⁸ Refer to sections II.3.4.3 and II.4.4.3 for details.

- That the development of links between other disciplines in New Zealand and German-speaking countries be facilitated by the German departments/sections. For instance, the development of an Institute of European-Pacific Law similar to the Institute of Sino-German European Law established at Nanjing University in China in cooperation with Göttingen University.⁹⁰⁹
- That the *Goethe-Institut* Wellington develop and offer a course in Business German aimed at professional people and students of Management Studies at various centres throughout New Zealand (in conjunction perhaps with the universities' Continuing Education programmes or the Chambers of Commerce).

The implementation of the proposed two centres would require substantive marketing and public relations. It is clear that the discipline must create the market for its 'products' by actively promoting these innovative developments to schools, the public, government bodies and the business sector. The promotion of the 'usefulness' or relevance (including the historical links between German-speaking Europe and New Zealand and the available opportunities for study, research and employment) of German is required in New Zealand.

Asian languages and cultures are promoted in all five countries using arguments that, in New Zealand and Australia, could equally be used for the European languages including German. A more balanced and considered approach to European languages (as compared with emphasis on the Asian languages and cultures) is required in New Zealand given the significant political, economic and cultural relations between New Zealand and German-speaking Europe. The marketing of the discipline must take into consideration the fact that Europe is one of the world's largest trading blocs, and, therefore, European languages, including German (particularly given its bridging function between Eastern and Western Europe), are important.⁹¹⁰ Europe is particularly important to New Zealand in the development of its tourism and trade sectors and given the potential markets and opportunities that exist in the European Union and in Eastern European countries.

The cooperation with other departments, institutions, countries and organisations is considerable in all five countries, including New Zealand. However, a database of the opportunities, organisations and networks that exist in New Zealand, similar to that developed by the *Goethe-Institut* Melbourne, is required.⁹¹¹ Such a database could be used in the promotion of the discipline to highlight the diversity of and potential for opportunities and applications of German competencies in New Zealand and elsewhere. This could be developed as a graduate level *Praktikum* with the support of the *Goethe-Institut* in Wellington given its network of contacts and financial backing. In addition, links with the

⁹⁰⁹ Refer to section II.1.4.3 for details.

⁹¹⁰ Cf. Stanley *et al.* 1990: 100.

⁹¹¹ Cf. <http://www.goethe.de/an/mel/network.htm> (23 May 2001).

Handelskammer, other industry and economic associations, social policy organisations and cultural organisations, for instance, in the German-speaking countries should be developed.⁹¹² The existing links between schools offering German, the university departments and other providers and 'German' organisations should also be further developed and promoted.

This study does not contend that this model is the only possibility globally, as countries such as the US, Canada and even China can obviously afford to offer a greater range of programmes both on account of their respective population size and the financial resources available in such countries. This does not, however, obviate the need to clearly identify specific objectives within the discipline, particularly in small countries such as New Zealand. Global trends in German Studies confirm my view that clear objectives and a concentration of academic and financial resources would unlock the considerable potential of the discipline of German Studies and enhance the discipline's contribution(s) to New Zealand.

⁹¹² Cf. Rösler *et al.* 2000: 19-20; Aso *et al.* 2000.

Appendix One:

**Translations of the quotes given in German
in the text.**

Translations of the quotes given in German in the text.

Part I: Introduction.

Page 5 : Clyne (1999: 121)

indisputable intercontinental international language, the principal language of world trade, of data processing, the identity symbol of the youth.

Page 8: Schöne (1986b: 9)

However, so that we are able to learn a lot from each other in the 'mutual exchange process', we ought to stimulate the productive forces of this particular wealth of perspectives instead of making ourselves poorer than we already are through inappropriate attempts to make [the discipline] uniform.

Pages 9-10: Ehlich (1994: 22)

has managed during the short time of its existence to develop an extremely diverse image, to develop a wide range of research activities, to productively integrate the interests of divergent academic related disciplines, and in a critical, complex, truly academic research context, to contribute to the opening up of a traditionally relatively isolated subject area, Germanistik, to new formulations of questions and new fields of practice through its own development.

Page 10: Wierlacher (1987b: 14)

the hermeneutic differences between the discipline of Germanistik in foreign language countries abroad ('Germanistik abroad'), the mother-tongue Germanistik of the German-speaking countries ('Internal Germanistik' [or Germanistik in Germany]) and the subject German as a Foreign Language, which is situated between these two variants.

Pages 10-11: Wierlacher (1992: 190)

a Germanistik discipline which, within the coordinate triangle of Foreign Language Germanistik, German as a Foreign Language and the Parent Language Germanistik, regards [the different] perspectives of things German, the Germans and the German-speaking countries neither hierarchically nor as an impediment, but rather recognises and acknowledges them as a better way of viewing things, namely from varied perspectives.

The general research and teaching goal of „Intercultural German Studies“ is [...] the investigation of and imparting of contemporary German language culture(s) and their history with the aim of qualifying the (German and foreign) students for diverse careers in international and intercultural cooperation.

Page 11: *Bayreuther Mitteilungen* (1996: 14)

- 1) Literary research and research in the teaching of literature (German as a foreign cultural literature)
- 2) Contemporary German language and the teaching of German as a foreign language;
- 3) German area studies;
- 4) The study of foreignness (Xenology) and intercultural communication
- 5) Comparative cultural studies.

Page 12: Slivensky (1999: 816-817)

would have to confront the far-reaching social and economic change(s) and develop a research and teaching profile, that systematically includes, on the basis of the subject traditions, socio-cultural developments (e.g. information technologies, the influence of new media on the communication process).

Part II: The International Context.

China:

Page 21: Dai and Zhang (1996: 151)

the reforms and the liberalisation policies of foreign relations in China have created favourable conditions for the economic cooperation and the academic exchange with foreign countries. In turn this economic cooperation and academic exchange has advanced the Chinese liberalisation policies.

Page 22: Hess (1999b: 175)

hardly a region in the world today, in which the education system – and with it German as a foreign language as well – has been exposed to such a creative and diverse process of renewal as in China.

Hess (1992a: 2)

first and foremost on account of the particular socio-political parameters. The economic and political structure of the country, the contradictions between economic reform(s) and political orthodoxy and the historical experiences during the forty years of the People's Republic also determine the way in which one operates in the *DaF* classrooms, they also determine the prospects and reality of *DaF* conceptions.

Page 23: Ni (1991: 208)

The study of foreign language found especially great interest with the then university students and was presumably an indication of the fact that China was gradually becoming aware of wanting to play a part in international affairs.

Page 35: Leonard (1994: 691)

with which one can better cope in the rapidly developing joint venture society.

Page 36: Zhao (1999: 595)

Career opportunities are offered predominantly in the small or medium-sized German firms, in which business between China and Germany is essentially carried out. This is because the dependence of the small or medium-sized firms on their German parent company results in them giving preference to German-speaking local personnel.

Steinmetz (1995: 537-538)

[The] aim and objective of the study of German in China [is] the development of translators and interpreters [...], who are capable of ensuring the envisaged transfer of technology from the German-speaking

countries. In this, the German language is to serve as a necessary instrument for the technology import.

Steinmetz (1995: 536-537)

In demand are workers who are flexible, with technical and foreign language skills, who

- are aware of the interface between technology and management,
- can communicate in a professionally competent manner and at an international level with the foreign partners,
- have access to English and German language specialist literature, and
- are capable of international, effective teamwork.

Mobile, flexible employees with a broad knowledge base and the ability to quickly adapt to new highly specialised tasks are, however, contrary to the traditional educational objectives of employees, who as workers are integrated into a lifelong, secure work placement, are satisfied with little information, and, because of the lack of material and promotion-oriented performance incentives and the general social conformity, patiently fulfil their consistently monotonous, narrowly-defined partial task within the boundaries of their >>danwei<<.

Page 38: Liang (1999: 200)

reflections of the demand of a particular time and closely associated with the social, political, ideological and historical as well as linguistic trends. Their preferences should, however, be seen and assimilated in a trans-historical manner.

Page 39: Günthner (1989: 433)

Thus Germans find the behaviour of many Chinese inappropriate, who right at the beginning of their acquaintance ask about marital status, the number of children or even the level of one's earnings. For the Chinese, however, these inquiries as to personal background signifies the establishment of a friendly, trusting atmosphere and, therefore, a necessary prerequisite for discussions about other subject matters.

Page 40: Günthner (1989: 436)

For Chinese participants in interaction (in particular the older and traditionally aware Chinese) the Confucian ideal of *harmony* represents even today an important rule (perhaps even *the* most important in interhuman interaction).

Liang (1996: 162)

for intercultural communication, the process of sensitisation for the foreign and the familiar must in an ever more pronounced way be made concrete through the development and imparting of elementary basic rules, which are to be regarded as the results of cultural and socially specific developments and which guide concrete behavioural patterns and patterns of action as well as their linguistic realisation.

Page 41: Zhu (1987: 242)

Selection and reception were in turn determined by the nationwide simmering rebellion against the feudal conditions and the longing for the emancipation of the individual.

Page 42: Zhu (1987: 243)

There was a very urgent reason: the to be expected rapid development of cooperation between China and the German Democratic Republic. Our country needed above all else diplomats and 'multipliers'.

Page 44: Sun (1992: 285)

The isolation, the detachment from the outside world, the powerlessness against one's fate, the depression, the bewilderment and hopelessness – all that, which is characteristic of the heroes of the modern [literature], finds understanding and sympathy with the young Chinese readers.

Page 50: Timmermann (1999: 481)

As cooperation and exchange were carried out predominantly at the state level, an intensive promotion of the German language in China went with this. The pragmatic integration has led to a greater effectiveness of the study of languages, to a diversification of Germanistik and to a secure status of German in the academic and technological exchange.

Page 51: Hess (2000: 2)

The Humanities themselves were, however, at no time the subject of the actual study of German, which instead remained pragmatic and preparatory.

Page 52: <http://www.goethe.de/os/hon/china/degerm1.htm> (22 January 2000)

a combination of the teaching of DaF, of Translator and Interpreter training and scholarly Germanistik.

Page 53: <http://www.gdufs.edu.cn/english/e21-f2.htm> (1 October 2000)

The degree programme serves to train highly qualified specialists, who are morally, professionally and physically well rounded, who have a solid grounding in the German language, and who possess practical skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. Apart from that they also have a basic knowledge of English and the fundamental communicative competencies. In addition to that they are in a position to undertake general research independently. [...] The graduates can be employed as interpreters and or translators in foreign affairs, in foreign economic relations, in foreign trade, in tourism or in the fields of international cultural exchange and science or technology. They can also be employed in the fields of research, teaching or administration.

Jia (1992: 116)

basic linguistic and area studies knowledge, reading, listening comprehension skills as well as speaking and writing skills [...]; in this process they are guided towards a competency to act in a linguistically and socio-culturally appropriate manner in the German language (communicative competence) and towards independent studies (study competence), so that a solid grounding for further education at an advanced level is created.

Page 55: Saarbeck *et al.* (1994: 590-591)

applied and specialist-oriented courses, which are often taken in conjunction with technical studies.

Huang (1992: 339)

to impart to the target groups basic linguistic abilities in these areas, which are necessary for the successful completion of further study and research: These include communication in everyday situations, the reading of specialist texts, the absorption of lectures, the writing of examinations and academic papers and participation in specialist discussions and conversations.

Page 56: Hess (2000: 4)

Due to their economic importance to the tertiary institutions, important impulses for a didactic, methodological “modernisation” have often emanated from them.

Page 60: Liang (1995: 303-304)

The guiding principle of the double degree qualification is based on the analysis of the areas of work in contemporary German-Chinese exchange, in which considerable demand exists for linguistically experienced specialists and professionally experienced language mediators as well as for appropriately qualified teachers of German.

Liu (1999: 786)

with only these [skills, students] are not able to adapt to real work situations nor [through these] do they become capable of operating interculturally in the ever increasing international cooperation. That means that one needs not only mediators of foreign language for the cooperation and communication between different cultures, but rather cultural mediators as well.

Hess (1993: 57)

In hardly any other country in the world has the study of German grown quantitatively as here, in hardly any other place have there been such great changes in such a short time in curricular planning, in the areas of teaching materials as well as teaching methodology.

Page 61: Zhao (1998: 688-689)

Since the end of the 1980s the reform-oriented endeavours are gaining the upper hand nationwide, and the Chinese Germanistik is developing more and more into a diverse and comprehensive subject that incorporates the traditional Germanistik, German as a Foreign Language, Germany Studies and training in interpreting.

Hess (1996: 32)

In practice, also in the career fields relevant to *DaF*, such as industry, *English* is today an indispensable basic qualification in the entire region including in China.

Hess (2000: 5)

if the tertiary institutions themselves in cooperation with potential employers do not manage to develop educational structures that are appropriate to the demands [of the labour market].

- Page 66:** Zhao (1999: 582)
- most take up positions in firms with German capital involvement as secretaries, employees in charge of a particular section, personal assistants to the management, etc. They are now confronted with new professional tasks in the economy, which go beyond the framework of the traditional Germanistik degree with its emphasis on literature, linguistics and area studies.
- Page 67:** Zhao (1999: 596)
- that the Germanistik students gain basic economic skills and thus possess the prerequisites for later further professional studies. In addition, intercultural components should be included in the courses in Business German.
- Hess (1992b: 357-358)
- part of a desired integrated personality profile that amounts to a willingness to cooperate and communicate in a work team, to personal and intellectual independence as well a superior command in dealing with changing professional tasks [...]
- Page 69:** Liu (1999: 791)
- the traditional grammar-oriented German and/or foreign language lessons must be changed, because these no longer meet the demands of the internationalisation and globalisation of the economy and science. Therefore, intercultural learning and the development of intercultural competence ought to be accepted as an integral goal of German and/or foreign language studies.
- Page 70:** Hernig (2000: 460)
- largely standardised general tertiary education, the fixation on language lessons, the limited spectrum of courses, the frequent decline in the number of courses offered in the second half of the 1990s and the fixation on Business German leave only little room for new, and with that intercultural, approaches.
- Page 71:** Steinmetz (1995: 532)
- The partial diploma programme of study >>Specialist German Technology<< is a German programme undertaken jointly with the major studies for Engineering students at a technical university in China, whose graduates are trained primarily for the employment market in China.
- Page 77:** Timmermann (1999: 486)
- The training of the young graduates is, in so far as this occurs at all, organised by the institutes internally as continuing education for teachers. The only comprehensive programme offered is the continuing education for teachers programme run by the *Goethe-Institut* in Peking, which in future intends to address leading 'multipliers', thereby hopefully providing an impetus for a pedagogical-didactical specialisation within the framework of the Chinese Germanistik discipline.

Leonard (1994: 693)

Improved teacher training in the areas of specialist language and methodology is necessary for that, in order to be able to prepare students for specialist study abroad or for an appropriate occupation within China.

Hess (1999b: 175)

A striking indication of Far Eastern innovation is the fact that Chinese universities have undertaken enormous efforts in the context of the reform and liberalisation policies to adapt their course offerings in the field of *DaF*, both in terms of content and methodologies, to the market.

Japan:

Page 78: Hirataka (1994: 195-196)

Before the second World War English, French and German had approximately the same status in Japanese society, but since the end of the war the English language has an almost hegemonial position in the Japanese foreign languages market.

Brenn and Dillmann (1989b: 7)

[...] on the one hand in view of the long tradition of intensive reception of the German language, science and culture in Japan, in which both the Japanese Germanistik and the German Germanisten working in Japan always held a central mediatory function and in which the Japanese image of Germany is still shaped in an (for the European understanding) unusually strong way by the mediatory discipline [of Germanistik]; on the other hand [...] also because of the high status which Japan occupies today as an object of German linguistic, cultural and academic efforts in the international spectrum [...]

Kutsuwada (1989: 339)

The development of „Germanistik“ in Japan [must] first be subject to critical consideration. This requires a perspective, which regards the Japanese Germanistik not only from the point of view of the specialist internal developmental history, but rather also includes its association with the overall process of social development.

Page 80: Kutsuwada (1992a: 122)

universal conscription and the reorganisation of the army at first according to the French and then the Prussian model; the obligatory general schooling for everybody, the organisation of the police, press, justice, postal, railway and health systems according to differing European models and the currency according to the American coinage system. The politicians responsible [...] intended to demonstrate with this, that the Japanese nation could in the shortest possible time reach the same level of civilisation as the Western countries.

Page 81: Kutsuwada (1992a: 123-124)

As a result of this the „promotion of the German science“ began under administrative leadership. Teaching and research at the Tokyo University oriented themselves almost entirely along the lines of German science. English and German became compulsory subjects [...]. Consequently German was supposed to become the language of the Humanities and of education.

Ueda (1990: 146)

a modern powerhouse loyal to the emperor, as a country of highly developed industry and technology, as a country with a high level of education and as a country of hardworking people.

Pages 81-81: Kutsuwada *et al.* (1987: 76)

in the most important areas of the justice system through to the codification of the position of Tenno in the constitution, of medicine, the sciences and technology and not least of all of the Humanities, amongst other things of Hegel's idealistic philosophy particularly with his philosophy of state, the upper class back then incorporated a great deal from Germany – and all by way of the German language.

Page 82: Kutsuwada *et al.* (1987: 77)

Those who had once learned German and who during social drinking gatherings in an illustrious circle could recite some quotes from Goethe off by heart for fun enjoyed social prestige. In addition, German was considered the official academic language, but not in the sense that the Japanese professors would have conversed in German as the scholastics would have done in Latin in their day; it was entirely sufficient as evidence of authority, if one could to some degree understand and quote German specialist literature. In contrast French was for a long time regarded a literary language.

Pages 82-83: Ammon (1994a: 10)

The linguistic and cultural influential trends were shifted massively by the second World War and its outcomes. In particular, the American influence and with it the role of the English language was expanded and strengthened in all social areas. English became the absolutely dominant foreign language in education as well as of communication. Even in those domains, in which German had previously still had an important function, English began to spread. Today English has, even in the traditionally German shaped domains of Japan, such as Medicine or the justice system, significantly repulsed or at least surpassed German.

Page 84: Itoi (1994: 208)

[...] the personality of the pupils in an atmosphere of „internationalisation“
[...] with the emphasis on the necessary skills for everyday life in an international society.

Page 87: Yoshijima (1996: 46)

The so-called new universities were established from the old secondary schools and universities, without the old division of functions being completely lifted. The old high schools now served as a preparatory department (Kyoyobu) and the old university as the actual specialist education institution.

Okamura (1996: 120)

was for a long time the only legally secured basis for the existence of German courses at Japanese universities besides the other languages in the course offerings.

Page 89: Takayama-Wichter (1989: 42-43)

In short, that which one has studied is not important; important is where one has studied.

Ammon (1994a: 10)

removed the obligation for all universities to provide a *studium generale* that had existed until now. An integral part of this study as a rule was, however, a second foreign language besides English, and on the whole the most commonly chosen second foreign language was German. After the new ruling the universities and even the individual departments can now freely decide whether they retain a compulsory *studium generale*, whether they offer it as an option or completely remove it.

Page 90: Mandelartz and Yamamoto (1999: 7-8)

the determination of one's career during pre-school age has at least in part been abolished again.

Page 91: Schmidt (1999: 48)

have without doubt in their tendency similar long-term effects, in that Japanese universities are reducing and reorganising the field of second foreign languages, so therefore want to/have to restructure, which will mean that in future the employment market for the German language will become more restricted and, at the very least, will be markedly changed.

Page 92: Itoi (1994: 208)

- (1) Education of vital and well disposed human beings;
- (2) Emphasis on fundamental education towards the development of individuality, an education indispensable for state citizens;
- (3) Promotion of the ability to develop oneself; [and]
- (4) A deep respect for Japanese culture and the national traditions as well as the promotion of an understanding of international relations.

Pages 92-93: Gad (1996a: 4-5)

what career benefits foreign languages competencies could bring – how this study could „pay off“. This tendency can be seen in particular in the increasing discussion about foreign language study. The representatives and promoters of the German language in Japan are only inadequately prepared for this change.

Page 94: Aizawa (1996: 165-166)

The idea of „German as a career qualification“ is held by neither the students nor the teaching staff or firms, and it is exactly this fact that is particularly crucial for the current crisis.

Page 96: Kutsuwada *et al.* (1987: 75)

German studies are for him an integral component of university life, a *conditio sine qua non*; German simply belongs to a campus like air and water to a living being.

Page 97: Asakura (1992: 24-25)

They learn a foreign language not for practical purposes, but rather in order to answer the questions in the entrance examination correctly (mostly written translation and grammar and not oral conversation).

Page 98: Sugitani (1995: 219)

The current practice of Japanese Germanistik, which de facto trains German teachers, offers exclusively German literature and linguistics studies and history. In Masters and doctoral courses pedagogical and linguistic theories and those on the psychology of learning are hardly covered. Practically oriented teaching evaluation is not even provided for. When appointing a teacher at a university the didactical skills and abilities are hardly enquired after, although in most cases they teach German for non-Germanisten.

Pages 98-99: Sugitani (1996: 217-218)

The teaching objectives of German studies are in most cases not explicitly named, but have traditionally been the reading of specialist and classical literary texts since the Meiji period (since the opening up of the country in 1868) in line with the classical definition of education [...]. In contrast, the learning objectives of the students lie in the promotion of the ability to „communicate orally” or more precisely in the „ability to communicate interculturally” in light of the [...] universal internationalisation [process].

Page 100: Takuma (1989: 38-39)

They pay attention to the tendencies and inclinations of their surroundings and adapt them. This phenomenon can be clearly seen, for example, in their taste in fashion, in their choice of books or in the organisation of their leisure time. They do not like to act alone and prefer to appear in a group.

Stickel (1973: 15)

„natural” reserve than a result of the learning behaviour acquired at school and university.

Ezawa (1975: 276-279)

Linguistically this difference in relating to language concerns once again a difference in the usage of language (parole), not in the language system (langue). We are dealing with the user and the use of the language, not with the language itself. That is, the failure of the Japanese in German Studies is partially to be put down to the fact that they use the German language fundamentally differently from the Germans.

Slivensky (1995: 336-337)

a paradigm of cultural homogeneity and uniformity in thinking and behaviour

Pages 101-102: Koshina (1988: 25)

No-one questioned the fact that for scientific, above all, medical studies, the study of the German language was necessary. Previously standard works of German literature and philosophy were also read with interest by students of all faculties, although mostly in Japanese.

Page 103: Kutsuwada (1992a: 127)

more precisely: grammatical deciphering of challenging literary texts and their translation into Japanese. Attempts at interpretation, which the young students sometimes undertook, were rejected almost without exception. – Even today there is still no lack of opportunities to experience something similar in classes.

Koshina (1988: 29)

The translation work belongs to the most important achievements of the Japanese Germanisten. [...] The translation culture is after all the fate of the Japanese. One could in this context describe translation as a necessary evil. Thus one can read the translated works of German literature from the Middle Ages through the Weimar classics to the contemporary literature in Japanese.

Page 104: Koshina (1990: 25)

an epoch-making moment in the history of the Japanese Germanistik discipline. Research and teaching of the subject was from then on predominantly born by the Japanese. Both Fujishiro in Kyoto and Ueda in Tokyo placed the emphasis on Goethe, Schiller, Lessing and in particular on the drama genre. Apart from the dramas of the above listed classics, they also covered the dramas of Heinrich von Kleist, Friedrich Hebbel and Gerhart Hauptmann.

Page 105: Koshina (1990: 34)

prompted [...] his younger colleagues and students [by saying] that everyone should have actual experiences in German literature and literary studies, and that everyone should expose his own opinions to the criticism of the others.

Page 110: Dillmann (1989b: 217)

Each of these two separate departments of – from the German perspective – one subject area [...] differs from one another not only clearly content-wise, in terms of their teaching and educational function, but are also physically separate, totally independent subject departments, each with its own personnel, equipment, premises, libraries, and not seldom, even on separate campuses.

Tsuji (1989: 14)

To put it in a simplified way, I contend that the study of the German language in Japan is quantitatively enormously broad and qualitatively extremely superficial. The cause of this is the firmly established system of *studium generale* in Japanese universities. It suffers from an astonishingly low niveau both of students and teaching staff.

Ueda (1990: 142)

a Japanese variety of the traditional Germanistik [...], namely one still slumbering deeply in methodological innocence, not thinking of the social relevance and [one that] could as a rule be described as an author-cult type of Germanistik, which is taken in the third and fourth years of study by an ever declining number of students.

Pages 110-111: Schubert (1987: 67)

The Japanese students are supposed to gain an insight into the German language and the German psyche, so that they will be able to analyse German literature and above all specialist literature independently. In accordance with this reasoning, the speaking abilities are often afforded less importance than the promotion of the ability to read.

Page 112: Richter (1989: III)

during which further experience in academic study is gathered. At the end of this course of study the academic degree is not always gained.

Page 113: Kutsuwada *et al.* (1987: 75-76)

from the ABC through to the subjunctive.

Terada (1996: 107)

symbols of the internationalisation of the Japanese education system.

Terada (1996: 107)

In contrast, it is most commonly expected of the native speakers that they should teach their students the so-called communicative skills only after an intensive grammar course taught by one of the Japanese colleagues, and this in a course that only takes place once a week without cooperation with their Japanese colleagues.

Page 114: Boeckmann (1999: 848-849)

expressions of opinion, explanations and similar open-ended contributions are seldom, if ever, required.

Page 115: Klopfer (2000a: 43)

continuous and comprehensive philological research into German language and literature, which has brought to light numerous activities, intensive discussions and sound results in all three areas of this discipline – older philology, newer philology and linguistics.

Page 119: Okamura (1996: 131-132)

The German studies discipline should shrink to a healthy state (whereby I would like to emphasise “healthy” most strongly) and despite that be able to produce concrete results (i.e. those students who are motivated to learn German, should be given the opportunity to really be able to speak German).

Page 120: Slivensky (1999: 819-820)

just as in all other disciplines [...] there are unwritten structures, which regulate human relations and the behaviour in organisations. A professional discipline, however, and in particular, a cultural studies discipline like Germanistik is obligated to make people aware of these structures, to reflect on them and to review them in regard to their future application potential.

Wakisaka (2000: 124-125)

1. Everyday culture [...]; 2. Language culture [...]; 3. German History; 4. German Society. Accordingly each study programme now comprises subject specific seminars and lectures, while an interdisciplinary course "German Communication" is offered for those students majoring in the subject.

Ikeda (1999: 23)

can discover [themselves] and Europe anew and in that way are able to – in a true sense - to transgress boundaries [...]

Page 121: Reichert (1999: 824)

Foreign languages skills, knowledge of cultural characteristic, receptiveness to other ways of thinking and philosophies of life.

In my opinion, the German discipline should, as one of the many foreign languages subjects, not only provide the students with insights into the German society, but rather introduce the students at the same time to another cultural circle, the European one.

Page 122: Richter (1989: III-IV)

which are oriented towards interdisciplinarity and modern forms of foreign languages studies.

Page 123: Sambe (1996: 198-199)

more or less in a position [...], to bridge both cultures, namely the Japanese and the German, i.e. that in the final analysis they are able to master the "ability to communicate on a relativised cultural basis" to a certain extent. [...] The "bridging of both countries" [...] only becomes possible in that such competent graduates are educated.

Page 124: Grünewald (1999b: 774)

The deeper reasons are to be found, in my opinion, in the religious and philosophical traditions of teaching, in the political and social hierarchical system as well as in the long established and accepted function of foreign languages in Japan. [...] A further reason, which has contributed to the neglect of area studies, is certainly also the fact that until 15 to 20 years ago it was very unlikely for most Japanese men and women that they would ever travel to Germany.

Page 125: Haasch (1975: 231)

As disadvantages it was feared that research and teaching would be separated from one another, the Germanist would be reduced to a pure language laboratory without research opportunities, the study areas would be limited, i.e. that for the basic degree [...] in the Humanities Faculty only English, French and German language would continue to be taught instead of - until then - also Philosophy, History and Literature. That only skills would be drilled, but that intellectual stimuli would no longer be imparted.

Page 127: Boeckmann (1999: 854-855)

'Help in order to help yourself' should be an intercultural, didactical objective recognised both in the West and in the East, and to do justice to this should signal an ever new challenge for us teachers.

Korea:

Page 131: Wollert (1996: 44)

The globalisation of Korea will in the medium term affect the entire education system and above all the foreign languages disciplines and force them to adapt and implement changes.

Pages 142-143: Schmidt (1996: 36)

That is, as someone said, first and foremost a result of the Korean educational policies in general and the expansion of the universities in 1979/80 in particular. These policies are characterised not by careful plans but rather by ad hoc decisions, that have to be put into practice from one day to the next, often serving only to make one's mark and not actual improvements, without the consequences being considered, according to the motto: here are the reforms, see that you come to terms with them.

Page 147: Adelhoefer (1996b: 16)

For many of them Germany is not only a highly developed industrial and export country, that should be emulated to the best of one's ability, but above all else also a country, through which one can become acquainted with a successful variant of European culture

Page 148: Manke (1997: 28-29)

Because it is very difficult to support career-oriented arguments for the study of German, we should attempt to take seriously the more or less latent fascination that many of our students have for German as a language, which can be used in occupying with Europe and its cultures, and we should attempt to respond to this interest at all possible levels.

Page 152: Fündling (1993/94a: 17)

The Confucian rules of an ordered hierarchy of upper and lower levels, which were based on class affiliation and age, determine even today family and work life in Korea. However, professional rankings, levels of education and differences in earnings have today taken the place of the old class barriers.

Franz (1983/84: 35)

The Korean Germanistik discipline is, therefore, by its nature exposed to the tension of confrontation of two different cultural spheres. The result of this confrontation, the academic achievements of the Korean Germanistik are, therefore, also the product of the variable degrees of influence of the different intellectual and cultural elements.

Page 153: Nellen (1989: 10)

Subordination, polite restraint, a zealous readiness to help, linguistic barriers, a lack of the ability to express oneself, etc. The German speaks directly and simply, the Korean cannot imagine doing that to a more senior person (= teacher); the German gives his own opinion, a Korean does not do that, he listens to and complies with what others say and do.

Page 156: Hann (1984: 309)

on translation work and in the publication of textbooks for the teaching of German at universities and secondary schools.

Page 159: Hur (1992: 103)

The Korean Germanistik discipline wants to wake up from its withdrawn, philological slumber of political abstinence, to redefine its historical, social tasks and to put its academic function into concrete terms in keeping with the current context.

Page 161: Yim (1986: 120-121)

These are intended, in the first instance, to fulfil the needs of the student readership, but at the same time manifest the need for the Korean Germanistik to catch up with fundamental academic principles, and to reflect the endeavours of the discipline to define itself, a discipline which for a long time modestly and primarily occupied itself with language teaching as well as the translation of fiction literature.

Page 162: Yim (1986: 122)

The actual justification of the existence of Germanistik in Korea is rather to be found in the critical-selective expansion of the horizons of Koreans and in the enrichment of the Korean culture.

Page 165: Yang (1998b: 9)

Firstly they must become acquainted with the foreign language and then the foreign literature and the foreign socio-cultural conditions. That is a manifold burden for both students and universities lecturers in [...] Korea.

Yim (1986: 114)

the curricula of the Germanistik departments are similar at all universities, but are often markedly different in the weighting of individual subject areas as well as in the distribution of subject specific courses throughout the years of study.

Page 173: Schmidt (1996: 36)

We must adapt, to the style, the market and then offer other teaching programmes and more contemporary, more attractive lectures and language courses. The methods of teaching are antiquated and must urgently be improved.

Page 178: Rhie (1997a: 18-19)

the central principle of the Chinese curriculum is the ability to communicate in the broadest sense of the word.

Page 183: Lie (1987: 89)

If German as a Foreign Language is to have a firm footing in South Korea, one must first clearly examine the current situation of schools and universities, the number of pupils and students, the organisation and the aim of the courses. In this process, one should not have an ideal picture [in mind], but rather a realistic one. One could begin by writing a textbook that is not concerned only with grammar but rather also with pronunciation and conversation, and which is appropriate for our students to learn with.

Page 184: Schmidt (1996: 37)

The Germanistik discipline in Korea, as in all other countries, does not have to be the discipline in Germany, but rather it can [...] determine its own emphasis and fields of work.

Australia:

Pages 185-186: Schauer (1990: 7-8)

At the moment we often hear that Australian school pupils and students should be offered more Asian languages. The geographical position of Australia and economic necessities are cited as the reason [for this]. I find this idea essentially good, but an expansion of the language offerings should not happen at the expense of the European languages. For one thing, the deep cultural roots in Europe of the majority of Australians and of the Australian political, economic and cultural ways of life must be preserved, and for another, the economic arguments for the learning of European languages are at least as strong as for the learning of Asian languages.

Page 199: Rhie (1997d: 69-70)

This was rightly understood as evidence that foreign languages, and with that also German as a foreign language, were not popular and were regarded as unnecessary. The majority of the population and politicians in Australia could not be convinced of the value of foreign language study.

Page 205: Taku (1996: 109)

The worth of each language was valued by the measure of usefulness for the national interest[s].

Page 228: Bickes (1993: 507-508)

because an above average number of people of German origin are striving for higher degrees and are, therefore, often to be found as doctoral candidates in the German departments.

Page 229: Veit (1985: 319)

Above all else, that which supports the process of and contributes to the attainment of a social and political awareness in Australia, quite apart from all consideration of career opportunities, is relevant to the Australian student.

Page 231: Rhie (1997d: 69)

The task of the German departments was regarded predominantly as the expansion and consolidation of the school German of the now enrolled students, to apply this to the literary study of Goethe and Brecht, of Hölderlin and Hülshoff. Within the various Australian German departments the pure

language lessons were often considered of secondary importance, as less important and, therefore, not academic enough.

Page 249: Rhie (1997d: 70)

One has recognised that the requirements in relation to *DaF* Studies must correspond with these new demands. The demands [...] today ensue from the foreign language study in schools, the academic restructuring and from the employment market.

Page 253: Horst (1998: 664)

The close relationship between the university and the economic world through numerous events jointly organised by representatives in both fields makes it possible for the students to develop a direct connection between theory and practice.

Page 254: Horst (1998: 669)

the integrated consideration of Business German as part of the German Studies discipline along with other fields, such as Literature, Philosophy and History, has recently contributed positively to the stabilisation and strengthening of the discipline in the consciousness of the environment and or the public.

Clyne (1997: 128-129)

industry is in the first instance not looking for Germanisten, but rather for young people with transferable, cognitive skills and subjects useful to them and, in addition, a high level of competency in a second language and culture.

Page 259: Stephens (1995: 116)

in future, demanding literature courses will certainly occupy only a modest place besides area studies, social history, applied linguistics and language lessons within the framework of „German Studies“.

Rhie (1997d: 70)

The subject offerings, hitherto dominated by literary studies, were now to an ever greater degree supplemented with the teaching of the German language, a component which soon was to become dominant.

Page 260: Rhie (1997d: 71)

They are informing themselves about foreign language didactics, language acquisition methodology and learning and teaching strategies.

Rhie (1997d: 71)

[they] should not only impart German language skills and the ability to apply these, but rather should also have general knowledge [and] an understanding of other cultures and societies.

Part III: German Studies in New Zealand.

No quotes given in German.

Part IV: Recommendations for the Future Development of German Studies in New Zealand.

No quotes given in German.

Appendix Two:

The structure, aims and objectives of *Deutsch als Fremdsprache (DaF)*.

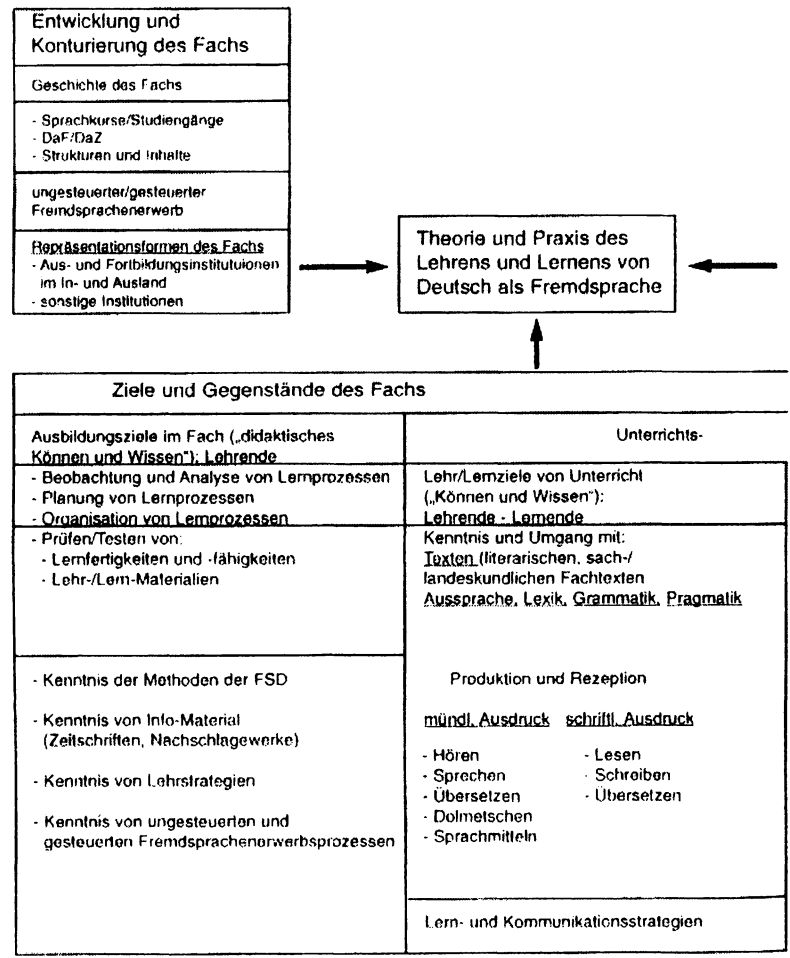
bei der Konstituierung beteiligt



DaF im Kontext anderer Wissenschaften	
<u>Referenz-Wissenschaften 1</u> „Grundlagen-Wissenschaften“	- Zweitspracherwerbsforschung - L2-Classroom Research - angewandte Linguistik
<u>Referenz-Wissenschaften 2</u> „Inhalts-Wissenschaften“	- Linguistik (kontrastive Linguistik, Pragmatik, Psycholinguistik u. a.) - Literaturwissenschaft - Germanistik/Auslandsgermanistik - Kultur- und Landes-Wissenschaft
<u>Referenz-Wissenschaften 3</u> „Bezugs-Wissenschaften“	- Soziologie - Psychologie - Pädagogik (Didaktik...) - Medien-Wissenschaft - ...

Ziele und Gegenstände des Fachs	
variablen	
Lehr-/Lernvoraussetzungen Lehrende - Lernende	Lehr-/Lernumgebung Lehrende - Lernende
<u>soziale Variablen:</u> soziale Distanz/Nähe: Status, Integrationsmuster, Kohäsion, Aufenthaltsdauer (Deutschkontakt)	institutionelle Bedingungen
	curriculare Bedingungen
	weitere Situationsbedingungen
<u>affektive Variablen:</u> Persönlichkeitsvariablen: psychologische Distanz/Nähe: Sprach-/Kulturschock, Einstellungen, Motivation...	Unterrichtsmittel und -medien: - Wörterbücher - Grammatiken - Lehr-/Lernmaterial - Sprachlabor - Video - Computer - ...
<u>kognitive Variablen:</u> Intelligenz, Gedächtnis, Begabung, Lernertypen...	
<u>andere Variablen:</u> Alter, Geschlecht...	

Strukturogramm DaF



Appendix Three:

**The *Interkulturelle Germanistik* programme
offered at Bayreuth University.**

The *Interkulturelle Germanistik* programme offered at Bayreuth University.⁹¹⁴

Das Bayreuther Studienangebot *Interkulturelle Germanistik*

A	Studienvorbereitende Sprachkurse DSH					▷ <u>Vorbereitungsphase</u> für ausländische Studienbewerber zum Erwerb der DSH
	Fachgebiet Deutsch als Fremdsprache (Interkulturelle Germanistik)					
	Literaturforschung und Literaturlehrforschung	Deutsche Gegenwartssprache und fremdsprachlicher Deutschunterricht	Deutsche Landeskunde	Fremdheitslehre	Kulturkomparatistik	▷ <u>Grundstudium</u>
	Auslandspraktikum					▷ <u>Praktikum</u> , obligatorisch für Hauptfachstudierende, es wird gefördert vom DAAD
						▷ <u>Hauptstudium</u>
	Spezialisierungsphase					▷ <u>Graduierten- und Doktorandenstudium</u>
B	Institut für Internationale Kommunikation und Auswärtige Kulturarbeit (IKK-Bayreuth)					
	Deutschlandstudien, Kulturthemenforschung (Fremdheitsforschung, Kulturforschung des Essens u. a.), Kommunikationstraining und Lehrerfortbildung					▷ <u>Interdisziplinäre Forschung, Sommeruniversität Internationale Arbeitskreise</u>
C	Akademie für interkulturelle Studien					
	Wissenschaftliche Weiterbildung von Führungskräften in Wirtschaft, Wissenschaft, Verwaltung und Kulturarbeit					▷ <u>Wissenschaftliche Weiterbildung</u>

⁹¹⁴ Cf. *Bayreuther Mitteilungen* 1996: 11.

Appendix Four:

**A summary of the States and Territories'
language policies.**

Table 2: Summary of current State/Territory language policies

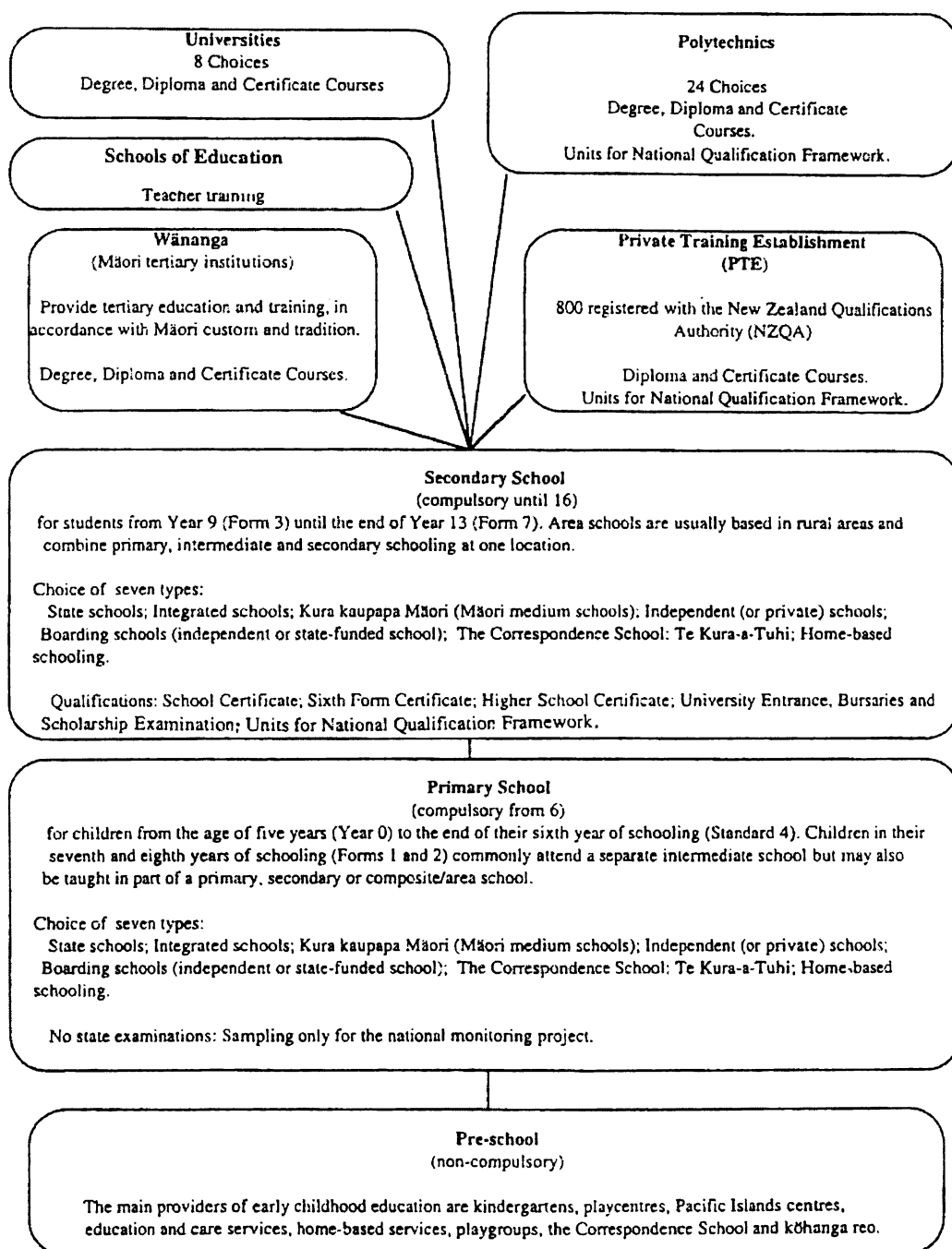
	DOCUMENT	ALLP PRIORITY LANGUAGES	OTHER LANGUAGES	LEVELS OF SCHOOLING AND HOURS OF INSTRUCTION
ACT	<i>Languages other than English in ACT Government schools 1990-2000 (1990)</i>	8: Mandarin Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek, Spanish (Korean and Thai being introduced)	Over 21 languages are taught, both in and outside the mainstream.	Minimum 90 minutes/week for primary, 2-3 hours/week for Years 7-10 and 4 hours/week for Years 11-12.
NSW	<i>Excellence and Equity (1989), LOTE Strategic Plan Consultation Document (1992), Curriculum Requirements for NSW Schools.</i>	12: Arabic, Chinese (Mandarin), French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Russian, Spanish and Vietnamese	30 languages are taught, both in and outside the mainstream at various year levels.	By 1996, 100 hours of one LOTE for one year compulsory in Years 7-10; after that, 200 hours Years 7-10; 25 per cent of Year 12 students to be studying a LOTE by the year 2000).
NT	<i>Northern Territory Policy on Languages Other Than English (1987).</i>	8: Aboriginal languages, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek.	43 languages are taught, both in and outside the mainstream.	2 hours/week in Years 6 and 7, 4 hours/week in Years 8-10 and 3.5-4 hours/week in senior secondary.
QLD	<i>P-10 Language Education Framework (1989) and The Teaching of Languages and Cultures in Queensland (Ingram and John) (1990).</i>	5: Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Japanese.	12 languages are taught, both in and outside the mainstream at various year levels.	By January 1996, at least one language in each school for Years 6-8 and one language through to Year 12 for 1.5 to 2.5 hours/week (may be compulsory for Years 5-10).
SA	<i>Linking People Through Languages (LPTL), Language Policy: Educating for the 21st Century, System-wide Management for Provision of Languages Other Than English (LOTEMAP) (1992), Tertiary Languages Planning: A Policy for South Australia (1990).</i>	13: Chinese, Farsi, French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Khmer, Pitjantjatjara, Polish, Russian and Vietnamese.	Adnyamathanha, Croatian, Dutch, Korean, Ngarrindjeri, Persian, Portuguese, Spanish, Thai, Serbian (Years R-7) and Latin (Years 8-12), as well as 21 languages outside the mainstream.	A language in every primary school by 1995 for a minimum of 90 minutes/week at primary level and 3-4 hours/week at secondary school level.
TAS	<i>Tasmania's languages policy (1987); to be replaced by The Study of Languages Other Than English in Tasmanian Schools and Colleges.</i>	6: Mandarin Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese.	Latin, Modern Greek, Polish, Russian and Spanish (Years 11-12).	10-90 minutes/week at primary level, 1-3 hours/week at secondary level, 4-5 hours/week at senior secondary school level.
VIC	<i>Languages Action Plan (1989), Education for Excellence, Implementing Languages Other Than English (LOTE) Policy.</i>	8: Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek, and Vietnamese.	No restrictions. A total of 43 languages are taught both in and outside the mainstream.	86 to 275 minutes/week at primary school level, and from 126 to 177 minutes at secondary school level.
WA	<i>Languages Other Than English: Strategic Plan (1990)</i>	10: Aboriginal languages, Mandarin Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek, Spanish and Vietnamese.	26 languages are taught, both in and outside the mainstream.	Minimum of 1 hour/week at primary school level, 2 hours/week at junior secondary school level, and 4 hours/week at senior secondary school level.

Source: Adapted from Nicholas et al. (1993:23-24) and from the Overview of Key Areas of State Policies (NLLIA) and updated

Appendix Five:

**A diagrammatic depiction of the New Zealand
education system.**

The New Zealand Education System.⁹¹⁶



⁹¹⁶ Cf. Johnson 2000: 22.

Appendix Six:

**Courses offered by German
Departments/Sections in New Zealand in the
years 1986, 1987, 1996 and 1997 as listed in the
University Calendars.**

Courses offered by German Departments/Sections in New Zealand in the years 1986, 1987, 1996 and 1997 as listed in the University Calendars.

The University of Auckland.

Courses offered in 1986:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Language Acquisition.
 Literature & Texts.
 Aspects of Modern German Civilisation.
- 200 Language Acquisition.
 Selected Aspects of German Language & Literature.
 Aspects of 20th Century German Literature.
- 300 Language Acquisition.
 Medieval and Romantic Texts.
 Classics of Modern German Literature.
-

Graduate:

- 400 Language Acquisition: Translation at sight & into German, Composition & other written work in German.
 Classical & Post-classical Middle High German Language & Literature with special reference to *Tristan & Isolde* & the works of Hartmann von Aue.
 Classical Middle High German Language & Literature with special reference to Wolfram von Eschenbach's *Parzival* & the *Nibelungenlied*.
 The political, religious & social background to Middle High German Literature.
 Aspects of textual critique.
 The poetry of Rilke.
 The Novelle & the Märchen in the 19th Century.
 Selected works of Brecht.
 Post-war German prose with specific reference to selected authors.
 Scandinavian drama with specific reference to Ibsen & Strindberg.
 Selected works of Thomas Mann & Franz Kafka.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in Germanic Languages, Literature, Thought or History.
 Dissertation. (1 paper)
 Thesis. (2 papers)

Courses offered in 1987:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Language Acquisition.
 Literature & Texts.
 Aspects of Modern German Civilisation.
 Reading Knowledge for Arts Students in Selected Disciplines.
 German for Singers.

- 200 Language Acquisition.
 Selected Aspects of German Language & Literature.
 Aspects of 20th Century German Literature.
- 300 Language Acquisition.
 Medieval and Romantic Texts.
 Classics of Modern German Literature.
-

Graduate:

- 400 Language Acquisition: Translation at sight & into German, Composition & other written work in German.
 Classical Middle High German Language & Literature with special reference to Wolfram von Eschenbach's *Parzival* & the *Nibelungenlied*.
 The political, religious & social background to Middle High German Literature.
 Literatur der Goethezeit.
 Post-war German prose with specific reference to selected authors.
 Scandinavian drama with specific reference to Ibsen & Strindberg.
 Linguistic analysis of contemporary written German.
 Selected works of Thomas Mann & Franz Kafka.
 20th Century Poetry.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 Literature & Film.
 German Lexicography.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in German Language or Literature.
 An approved Special Topic in Germanic Languages, Literature, Thought or History.
 Dissertation. (1 paper)
 Thesis. (2 papers)

Courses offered in 1996:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Language Acquisition: Introductory.
 Language Acquisition: Intermediate IA.
 German in Business.
 Introduction to German Literature.
 Aspects of Modern German Civilisation.
- 200 Language Acquisition: Intermediate II.
 20th Century German Literature.
 Contemporary Literature.
 Language in Society.
- 300 Language Acquisition: Advanced.
 Translation: Theory & Practice.
 18th & 19th Century German Literature.
 Modern German Classics.
 Lexicology & Lexicography.
 Middle High German.
 Special Topic: Sprachpraktikum.
-

Graduate:

- 700 Language Acquisition.
Language Acquisition: *GDS*.
Translation.
The Märchen.
The age of Goethe.
Thomas Mann.
Rilke.
Post-war German Prose.
20th Century German Poetry.
Literature & Film.
20th Century Women Writers.
Middle High German Literature II: Wolfram von Eschenbach.
Special Topic in German Literature.
Special Topic in German Studies.
Lexicography I.
Lexicography II.
Special Topic in German Linguistics.
Dissertation. (1 paper)
Thesis A. (2 papers)
Thesis B. (3 papers)

Courses offered in 1997:**Undergraduate:**

- 100 Language Acquisition (Introductory).
Language Acquisition (Intermediate IA).
German in Business.
Language Acquisition (Intermediate IB).
Introduction to German Literature.
Modern German Civilisation.
- 200 Language Acquisition (Intermediate II).
20th Century German Literature.
Contemporary Literature.
Language in Society.
- 300 Language Acquisition (Advanced).
Translation in Theory & Practice.
Classicism, Romanticism, Realism.
Modern German Classics.
Lexicology.
Medieval Literature.
Special Topic: *Sprachpraktikum*.
Special Topic in German Studies 1997: *The German Connection*.
-

Graduate:

- 700 Language Acquisition.
Language Acquisition. (*GDS*).
Age of Goethe.
Rilke.
Post War German Prose.
Literature & Film.
20th Century Women Writers.
Middle High German Literature II: Wolfram von Eschenbach's *Parzival*.
Special Topic in German Literature.

Special Topic in Germanic Studies 1997: The German Connection.
 Goethe, Faust I.
 The Contemporary Novel.
 Fontane: *Effi Briest* as Novel & Film.
 Thomas Mann: the Early Works.
 Thomas Mann: the Later Works.
 Lexicography (I).
 Lexicography (II).
 Language History I.
 Language History II.
 Special Topic in German Linguistics.
 Contemporary German I: Structures.
 Contemporary German II: Developments.
 Dissertation. (1 paper)
 Thesis A. (2 papers)
 Thesis B. (3 papers)

The University of Canterbury.

Courses offered in 1986:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Elementary German Language.
 German Language.
 German Literature in Translation.
 German Literature.
 German Cultural & Historical Background.
- 200 German Language.
 Introduction to Middle High German.
 German Literature: Enlightenment, Storm & Stress, 'Klassik'.
 German Literature: Romanticism.
 German Literature: Narrative Prose & Drama in the 19th Century.
 German Literature: 20th Century Drama.
 German Literature: From the Turn of the Century to the Present.
 German Literature: Film & Sources.
- 300 German Language.
 German Literature: Enlightenment, Storm & Stress, 'Klassik'.
 German Literature: Romanticism.
 German Literature: Narrative Prose & Drama in the 19th Century.
 German Literature: 20th Century Drama.
 German Literature: From the turn of the Century to the present.
 German Literature: Film & Sources.

Graduate:

- 600 Oral Work: Translation &/or Essays in German.
 Middle High German Texts.
 A Special Topic in Middle High German.
 Detailed Study of a German Writer.
 Studies in the German Novel, *Novelle* or Short Story.
 Studies in the German Drama.
 Studies in German Lyrics.
 Aspects of German Literature since 1945.
 A Special Topic.
 A Special Topic.
 A Special Topic.

Special Topic: Comparative Literary Studies. The Emergence of the New Woman.
Extended Essay.
M.A. Thesis.

Courses offered in 1987:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Elementary German Language.
 German Language.
 German Literature in Translation.
 German Literature: Introduction & three main genres.
 German Cultural & Historical Background.
- 200 German Language.
 Introduction to Middle High German.
 The Classical Period.
 Romanticism.
 Modern German Drama.
 German Film.
- 300 German Language.
 Introduction to Middle High German.
 The Classical Period.
 Romanticism.
 German Literature from the Turn of the Century to the Present.
-

Graduate:

- 400 Extended Essay.
- 600 Sprache.
 Middle High German Texts.
 A Special Topic in Middle High German.
 Detailed Study of a German Writer.
 Studies in the German Novel, *Novelle* or Short Story.
 Studies in the German Drama.
 Studies in German Lyrics.
 A Special Topic.
 A Special Topic.
 A Special Topic.
 Special Topic: Comparative Literary Studies. The Emergence of the New Woman.
 M.A. Thesis.

Courses offered in 1996:

Undergraduate:

- 100 German Language.
 German Literature in Translation.
 Introduction to German History & Culture.
 Elementary German Language. (I)
 Elementary German Language. (II)
 Reading German Literary Texts.
- 200 German Language.
 Introduction to Middle High German.
 German Film.
 German Literature & Society.

Reading German Literary Texts.

- 300 German Language.
German Literature & Society.
Reading German Literary Texts.

Graduate:

- 400 Extended Essay.
- 600 Sprache.
Middle High German Texts.
A Special Topic in Middle High German.
Detailed Study of a German Writer.
Studies in the German Novel, *Novelle* or Short Story.
Studies in the German Drama.
Studies in German Lyrics.
Aspects of German Literature since 1945.
A Study of a Modern Literary Period: Fin de siècle.
Film & Literature.
Special Topic.
Special Topic.
M.A. Thesis.

Courses offered in 1997:

Undergraduate:

- 100 German Language.
German Literature in Translation.
Introduction to German History & Culture.
Elementary German Language.
Intermediate German Language.
Reading German Literary Texts.
- 200 German Language.
Medieval German Literature & Society.
German Literature & Society.
Reading German Literary Texts.
- 300 German Language.
German Literature & Society.
Reading German Literary Texts.

Graduate:

- 400 German Language (Angewandte deutsche Linguistik).
Middle High German Texts
Detailed Study of a German Writer
Studies in German Poetry.
Aspects of German Literature since 1945.
Special Topic: Antikenrezeption in der deutschen Klassik.
Special Topic.
Special Topic in German Cultural Studies.
Extended Essay.
- 600 M.A. Thesis.

Massey University.

Courses offered in 1986:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Basic Course in German Language.
Survey of the Main Periods of German Literature & Art from the Middle Ages to
1918.
Modern German Literature in Translation.
Survey of German Life & Literature in the 20th Century.
Intermediate German Language I.
- 200 19th Century German Literature in Translation.
Literary & Social Change in the 19th Century.
Intermediate German Language II.
- 300 Goethe, Hölderlin & Kleist.
The German Middle Ages.
Advanced German Language.
Special Topic.
-

Graduate:

- 400 Advanced German Language.
The Study of a particular genre.
A specific major author.
A selected topic in Literary History.
The German Middle Ages.
A specified period of Literature.
Special Topic.
Special Topic.
Research Essay. (1 paper)
- 500 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1987:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Basic Course in German Language.
Survey of the Main Periods of German Literature & Art from the Middle Ages to
1918.
Modern German Literature in Translation.
Survey of German Life & Literature in the 20th Century.
Intermediate German Language I.
- 200 19th Century German Literature in Translation.
Literary & Social Change in the 19th Century
Medieval German Language & Literature.
Intermediate German Language II.
- 300 Lessing, Goethe, Schiller.
Goethe, Hölderlin & Kleist.
Advanced German Language.
Special Topic.
Special Topic.

Graduate:

400 Advanced German Language.
 The study of a particular genre.
 A specific major author.
 A selected topic in Literary History.
 The German Middle Ages.
 A specified period of Literature.
 Special Topic.
 Special Topic.
 Research Essay. (1 paper)

500 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1996:

Undergraduate:

100 Basic Course in German Language.
 Survey of the Main Periods of German Literature & Art from the Middle Ages to 1918.
 Survey of German Life & Literature in the 20th Century.
 Intermediate German Language I.

200 German Film.
 Literary & Social Change in the 19th Century.
 Intermediate German Language II.

300 Lessing, Goethe, Schiller.
 Advanced German Language.
 Special Topic German.
 Special Topic German.

Graduate:

400 Advanced German Language.
 The Study of a Particular Genre.
 A Specific Major Author.
 A Selected Topic in Literary History.
 The German Middle Ages.
 A Specified Period of Literature.
 Special Topic I German.
 Special Topic II German.
 Research Essay. (1 paper)

500 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1997:

Undergraduate:

100 Basic Course in German Language.
 Modern Germany.
 Intermediate German Language I.
 European Civilisation.

- 200 German Film.
Intermediate German Language II.
Modern German Short Story.
- 300 Hölderlin & Kleist.
Advanced German Language.
Special Topic German.
Special Topic German.
-

Graduate:

- 400 Advanced German Language.
The Study of a Particular Genre.
A Specific Major Author.
A Selected Topic in Literary History.
The German Middle Ages.
A Specified Period of Literature.
Special Topic I German.
Research Essay. (1 paper)
- 500 Thesis.

The University of Otago.

Courses offered in 1986:

Undergraduate:

BA Stream:

- 100 Preliminary German.
Language Studies 1.
The Study of Selected Texts by Modern German Authors.
- 200 Language Studies 2.
The Study of the German Novelle & Erzählung, based on selected texts.
The Study of German Drama & Lyric Poetry, based on selected texts.
- 300 Language Studies 3.
The Study of the German Novel: based on selected texts.
The Study of German Drama & Lyric Poetry: based on selected texts.

BA (Hons) Stream:

- 200 Language Studies: free compositions, translation, reading comprehension & a variety of exercises
demonstrating students' comprehension of syntactical patterns.
German Novelle.
German Drama.
German Poetry: selected authors.
Introduction to Middle High German.
A essay or essays in German.
- 300 Language Study: free composition, translation & reading comprehension.
The Study of the German Novel: based on selected texts.
The Study of German Drama & Lyric Poetry: based on selected texts.
Aufklärung or Sturm und Drang or Classicism or Romanticism.
Middle High German Literature.

German Drama: Hauptmann to the present day.
 German Novel: Mann to present day.
 As for 354 or Poetic Realism or Naturalism or Expressionism.
 Social & political background 1770-1870 or 1870 to present day.
 A Special Author.
 A Second Special Author.
 A Special Topic in Literature.
 A Second Special Topic in Literature.
 A Special Topic I Language, Literature, or civilisation.
 A Second Special Topic in Language, Literature, or civilisation.
 Principles of Literary Criticism.
 A Special Topic in Comparative Literature.

Graduate:

400 An Essay or Essays in German.
 Dissertation. (2 paper)

Courses offered in 1987:

Undergraduate:

BA Stream:

100 Preliminary German.
 Language Studies 1.
 The Study of Selected Texts by Modern German Authors.

200 Language Studies 2.
 The Study of the German Novelle & Erzählung, based on selected texts.
 The Study of German Drama & Lyric Poetry, based on selected texts.

300 Language Studies 3.
 The Study of the German Novel: based on selected texts.
 The Study of German Drama & Lyric Poetry: based on selected texts.

BA (Hons) Stream:

200 Language Studies: free compositions, translation, reading comprehension & a
 variety of exercises
 demonstrating students' comprehension of syntactical patterns.
 German Novelle.
 German Drama.
 German Poetry: selected authors.
 Introduction to Middle High German.
 A essay or essays in German.

300 Language Study: free composition, translation & reading comprehension.
 The Study of the German Novel: based on selected texts.
 The Study of German Drama & Lyric Poetry: based on selected texts.
 Aufklärung or Sturm und Drang or Classicism or Romanticism.
 Middle High German Literature.
 German Drama: Hauptmann to the present day.
 German Novel: Mann to present day.
 As for 354 or Poetic Realism or Naturalism or Expressionism.
 Social & political background 1770-1870 or 1870 to present day.
 A Special Author.
 A Second Special Author.
 A Special Topic in Literature.

A Second Special Topic in Literature.
 A Special Topic in Language, Literature, or civilisation.
 A Second Special Topic in Language, Literature, or civilisation.
 Principles of Literary Criticism.
 A Special Topic in Comparative Literature.

Graduate:

400 An Essay or Essays in German.
 Dissertation. (2 paper)

Courses offered in 1996:

Undergraduate:

100 Introductory German Level 1.
 Introductory German Level 2.
 People, Power, Politics.
 German Language 1.
 Selected 20th Century German Texts.

200 German Language 2.
 The Narrative Voice.
 German Drama in Context.
 German Essays.
 Introduction to Germanistik.

300 German Language 3.
 The German Novel.
 Cornerstones of German Drama.
 Essays in German.
 A Special Topic.
 A Special Topic in German.
 A Literary Genre.
 A Literary Period.
 A Second Special Topic.

Cross-discipline Papers:

200 Film in Russia & Germany.

Graduate:

400 Further Essays in German.
 A Third Special Topic.
 A Special Topic in German.
 Oral German.
 A Special Topic in Germanistik.
 Dissertation.

Courses offered in 1997:

Undergraduate:

100 Introductory German Level 1.
 Introductory German Level 2.
 People, Power, Politics.

German Language 1.
Selected 20th Century German Texts.

200 German Language 2.
The Narrative Voice.
German Drama in Context.
Introduction to Germanistik.

300 German Language 3.
The German Novel.
Cornerstones of German Drama.
Essays in German.
A Special Topic.
A Special Topic in German.
A Literary Genre.
A Literary Period.
A Second Special Topic.

Cross-discipline Papers:

200 Film in Russia & Germany.

Graduate:

400 Further Essays in German.
A Third Special Topic.
A Fourth Special Topic.
Oral German.
A Special Topic in Germanistik.
Dissertation.

The University of Victoria.

Courses offered in 1986:

Undergraduate:

100 German Language.
German Language 1.
German Literature 1: Introduction to 20th Century Literature.
German Economy, Society & Culture 1.

200 German Language 2.
German Literature 2.
German Economy, Society & Culture 2 - 1945 onwards.

300 German Language 3.
German Literature 3.
German Economy, Society & Culture 3.

Graduate:

400 Advanced Language Study.
History of the German Language.
German Poetry.
German Drama.
The German *Novelle*.

The German Novel.
 A Period of German Literature.
 Medieval German Language & Literature.
 A Major German Author.
 A Major 20th Century Author.
 Special Topic 1.
 Special Topic 2.
 Research Essay. (1 paper)

500 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1987:

Undergraduate:

- 100 German Language.
 German Language 1.
 German Literature 1.
 German Economy, Society & Culture 1.
- 200 German Language 2.
 German Literature 2.
 German Economy, Society & Culture 2 - 1945 onwards.
- 300 German Language 3.
 German Economy, Society & Culture 3.
 German Literature 3.

Graduate:

- 400 Advanced Language Study.
 History of the German Language.
 German Poetry.
 German Drama.
 The German *Novelle*.
 The German Novel.
 A Period of German Literature.
 Medieval German Language & Literature.
 A Major German Author.
 A Major 20th Century Author.
 Special Topic 1.
 Special Topic 2.
 Research Essay. (1 paper)

500 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1996:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Introduction to the German Language.
 Elementary German.
 German Language 1.
 German Literature 1.
 German Economy, Society & Culture 1.
- 200 German Language 2.
 German Literature 2.
 German Economy, Society & Culture 2 .

- 300 German Language 3.
German Literature 3.
German Economy, Society & Culture 3.

Cross-discipline papers:

- 100 Introduction to European Studies.

Graduate:

- 400 Advanced Language Study.
History of the German Language.
German Poetry.
German Drama.
The German *Novelle*.
The German Novel.
A Period of German Literature.
Medieval German Language & Literature.
A Major German Author.
A Major 20th Century Author.
Special Topic 1.
Special Topic 2.

- 500 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1997:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Introduction to the German Language.
Elementary German.
German Language 1.
German Literature 1.
German Economy, Society & Culture 1.
- 200 German Language 2.
German Literature 2.
German Economy, Society & Culture 2 . ()
- 300 German Language 3.
German Literature 3.
German Economy, Society & Culture 3.

Cross-discipline papers:

- 100 Introduction to European Studies.

Graduate:

- 400 Advanced Language Study.
History of the German Language.
German Poetry.

German Drama.
 The German *Novelle*.
 The German Novel.
 A Period of German Literature.
 Medieval German Language & Literature.
 A Major German Author.
 A Major 20th Century Author.
 Special Topic 1.
 Special Topic 2.
 Research Essay. (1 paper)

500 Thesis.

The University of Waikato.

Courses offered in 1986:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Language Studies: written & oral.
 German Culture Studies I: Contemporary Germany.
 Conversation & Reading Skills.
 Elementary German I.
 Elementary German II.
- 200 Language Studies: written & oral.
 German Culture Studies II: From the Middle Ages to the Baroque.
 Literature of the 19th century.
 Studies in German Literature.
 Intermediate German.
- 300 Language Studies: written & oral.
 German Culture Studies III: 18th Century Literature & Culture.
 The German Novel of the 20th century.
 Studies in German Literature.

Graduate:

- 400 Language Studies: written & oral.
- 500 Language Studies: written & oral.
 Studies in Gottfried von Straßburg's *Tristan*.
 The Poetry & Prose of Christoph Meckel.
 Volksmärchen und Kunstmärchen.
 Dissertation.
 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1987:

Undergraduate:

- 100 Language Studies: written & oral.
 German Culture Studies I: Contemporary Germany.
 German Literature: 20th Century in translation.
 Language: Reading & Communication Skills I.
 Elementary German I.
 Elementary German II.

- 200 Language Studies: written & oral.
 German Culture Studies II: From the Middle Ages to the Baroque.
 German 19th & 20th Century Prose & Drama.
 Language: Reading & Communication Skills II.
 Intermediate German.
- 300 Language Studies: written & oral.
 German Culture Studies III: 18th Century Literature & Culture.
 The German Novel of the 20th Century.
 Studies in Medieval German Literature.
-

Graduate:

- 400 Language Studies: written & oral.
- 500 Language Studies: written & oral.
 Studies in Medieval German Literature.
 The Poetry & Prose of Christoph Meckel.
 Volksmärchen und Kunstmärchen.
 A Special Topic in German Literature.
 Dissertation.
 Thesis.

Courses offered in 1996:

Undergraduate:

- 100 German Language Studies: Written & Oral.
 Social, Political & Cultural Aspects of Contemporary Germany.
 German for Beginners 1.
 German for Beginners 2.
- 200 German Language Studies: Written & Oral.
 The Middle Ages & their Discovery in Modern Times.
 German Cinema.
 Intermediate German 1.
 Intermediate German 2
 The German State & the Media: Advanced Reading & Communication Skills.
- 300 German Language Studies: Written & Oral.
 18th Century Literature & its Reception in the 20th Century.
 Studies in Medieval German Literature.
 Contemporary German & European Issues.
-

Graduate:

- 400 German Lg. Studies: Advanced Translation, Composition & Oral Skills.
- 500 German Lg. Studies: Advanced Translation, Composition & Oral Skills.
 Studies in Medieval German Literature.
 German Literature & Film.
 The Literature of East Germany I.
 Rahmenbedingungen des Fachs Deutsch in Neuseeland. Zur Situation des
 Deutschlehrers im Ausland (DaF).
 Praktikum (DaF).
 Spracherwerb und Literatur an neuseeländischen Schulen und Hochschulen (DaF).
 Deutschsprachige Einwanderer in Neuseeland (DaF).

Language, Culture, Business. (2 papers)
Directed Research Project.
Dissertation. (1 paper)
Thesis. (2 paper)

Courses offered in 1997:

Undergraduate:

- 100 German Language Studies, Written & Oral.
Social, Political & Cultural Aspects of Contemporary Germany.
German for Beginners 1.
German for Beginners 2.
- 200 German Language Studies, Written & Oral.
The Middle Ages & their Discovery in Modern Times.
German Cinema.
Intermediate German 1.
Intermediate German 2.
The German State & the Media: Advanced Reading & Communication Skills.
- 300 German Language Studies, Written & Oral.
18th Century Literature & its Reception in the 20th Century.
Studies in Medieval German Literature.
Contemporary German & European Issues.
Studies in Medieval German Literature.
-

Graduate:

- 400 German Language Studies: Advanced Translation, Composition & Oral Skills.
- 500 German Language Studies: Advanced Translation, Composition & Oral Skills.
Studies in Medieval German Literature.
German Literature & Film.
The Literature of East Germany I.
Rahmenbedingungen des Fachs Deutsch in Neuseeland. Zur Situation des Deutschlehrers im Ausland (DaF).
Praktikum DaF.
Spracherwerb und Literatur an neuseeländischen Schulen und Hochschulen (DaF).
Deutschsprachige Einwanderer in Neuseeland (DaF).
Language, Culture, Business. (2 paper)
Report of Investigation. (2 paper)
Special Topic. (2 paper)
Directed Research Project.
Dissertation. (1 paper)
Thesis. (2 paper)

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